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HISTORICAL COURSE
FOR SCHOOLS, BOOK 6
SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER, ETC.

2

ENGLAND
EDITH THOMPSON



228 f. 348



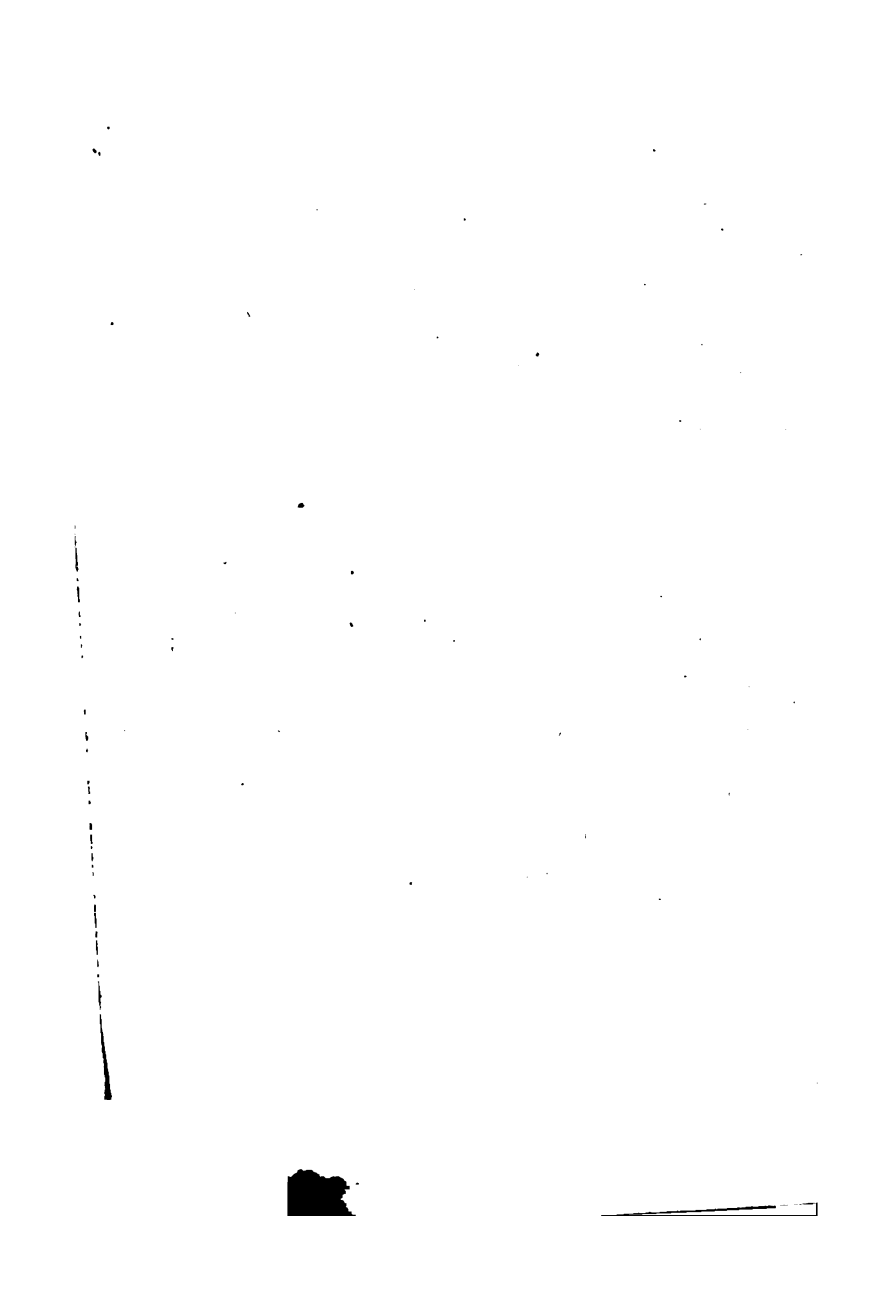
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HISTORICAL COURSE
FOR SCHOOLS, *edited by*
EDWARD A. FREEMAN, D.C.L.

II.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.



Historical Course for Schools.

HISTORY
OF
ENGLAND.

BY
EDITH THOMPSON.

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①.

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PREFACE.

THE appearance of the first of the series of small histories to be published under my editorship seems to call for a few words from me. The present History of England takes for granted the views and divisions laid down in my General Sketch of European History so far as they concern the particular history of England. The points in English history which were there touched on as parts of general history, with special regard to their bearings on the history of other countries, are here dealt with more fully, as a consecutive narrative of the history of the particular nation and country of England. It will perhaps be found to be more compressed than some other volumes of the series, as the history of our country naturally appealed to a wider circle than any other, and it was thought right to keep the book within as small a compass as might be.

The book is strictly the work of its author. I have throughout given it such a degree of supervision as to secure its general accuracy; but with regard to the

details of the narrative, both as to their choice and their treatment, they are the author's own ; on these points I have not thought it right to go beyond suggestion. It may perhaps be hard for me to speak impartially of a book to whose general merit I am pledged by its mere appearance ; but I can honestly say that it is the result of genuine work among the last and best lights on the subject. I believe it to be thoroughly trustworthy, and that it will give clearer and truer views on most of the points on which clear and true views are specially needed than can be found in any other book on the same small scale.

EDWARD A. FREEMAN

SOMERSET, WELLS,

March 8th, 1873.

CONTENTS.

CHAP	PAGE
I.—BRITAIN	I
II.—ENGLAND	4
III.—THE CONVERSION OF ENGLAND	8
IV.—WESSEX	10
V.—FROM ÆTHELSTAN TO THE DANISH KINGS	16
VI.—THE DANISH KINGS	21
VII.—FROM EDWARD TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST	23
VIII.—THE OLD ENGLISH AND NORMANS	26
IX.—WILLIAM I.	35
X.—WILLIAM II.	39
XI.—HENRY I.	42
XII.—STEPHEN	46
XIII.—HENRY II.	48
XIV.—RICHARD I.	53
XV.—JOHN	56
XVI.—HENRY III.	60
XVII.—EDWARD I.	66
XVIII.—EDWARD II.	71
XIX.—EDWARD III.	75
XX.—RICHARD II.	81
XXI.—HENRY IV.	88
XXII.—HENRY V.	92
XXIII.—HENRY VI.	96

CHAP.	PAGE
XXIV.—EDWARD IV.	100
XXV.—EDWARD V.	104
XXVI.—RICHARD III.	106
XXVII.—HENRY VII.	111
XXVIII.—HENRY VIII.	114
XXIX.—EDWARD VI.	122
XXX.—MARY	127
XXXI.—ELIZABETH	131
XXXII.—JAMES I.	140
XXXIII.—CHARLES I.	149
XXXIV.—THE COMMONWEALTH	158
XXXV.—CHARLES II.	166
XXXVI.—JAMES II.	174
XXXVII.—WILLIAM AND MARY: WILLIAM III.	184
XXXVIII.—ANNE.	191
XXXIX.—GEORGE I.	195
XL.—GEORGE II.	199
XLI.—GEORGE III.	210
XLII.—GEORGE IV.	229
XLIII.—WILLIAM IV.	232
XLIV.—VICTORIA	236
INDEX	243

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

	B.C.
Cæsar lands in Britain	55, 54
	A.D.
Claudius in Britain	43
Caradoc subdued	50
Revolt of Boadicea	61
Agricola in Britain	78—84
Hadrian in Britain	120
Severus dies at York	211
Martyrdom of St. Alban	304
The Roman legions leave Britain	410
ENGLISH CONQUEST :—Hengist founds the Kingdom of Kent	449
Ælle and Cissa found the Kingdom of Sussex	477
Cerdic and Cynric found the Kingdom of Wessex	495
Arthur defeats the West-Saxons at Badbury	520
Ida founds the Kingdom of Northumberland	547
Æthelbert converted by Augustine	597
Edwin converted by Paulinus	627
Ine King of the West-Saxons	688
Offa King of the Mercians	757
First landing of the Danes	789
Egbert King of the West-Saxons	802
Æthelwulf	838

	A. D.
Æthelbald	858
Æthelbert	860
Æthelred I.	866
The Danes land in East-Anglia	866
Alfred	871
Peace of Wedmore	878
Edward the Elder	901
Edward becomes Lord of all Britain	924
Æthelstan	925
Battle of Brunanburh	937
Edmund the Magnificent	940
Edmund grants Strathclyde to Malcolm of Scotland	945
Edred	946
Edwy	955
Edgar	959
Edgar crowned at Bath	973
Edward the Martyr	975
Æthelred II.	979
The Danish invasions begin again	980
Danegeld first paid	991
THE DANISH CONQUEST :—Swegen acknowledged King	1013
Æthelred restored	1014
Edmund Ironside	1016
War between Edmund and Cnut ; the Kingdom divided	1016
THE DANISH KINGS. Cnut chosen King of all England	1017
Harold and Harthacnut ; the Kingdom again divided	1035
Harold King of all England	1037
Harthacnut	1040
HOUSE OF CERDIC restored. Edward the Confessor	1042

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

xi

	A. D.
Westminster consecrated	1065
HOUSE OF GODWIN :—Harold II.	1066
Battle of Stamfordbridge, Sept. 25th	1066
THE NORMAN CONQUEST ; Battle of Hastings, Oct. 14th	1066
THE NORMAN KINGS :—William I. crowned, Dec. 25th	1066
Harrying of Northumberland	1069
Defence of the Isle of Ely	1071
Domesday drawn up	1085, 1086
William II.	1087
Malcolm III. of Scotland slain at Alnwick	1093
Henry I.; Charter of Liberties.	1100
Battle of Tinchebray	1106
Stephen	1135
Battle of the Standard, Aug. 22nd	1138
War of Stephen and Matilda	1139—1153
HOUSE OF ANJOU :—Henry II.	1154
Constitutions of Clarendon	1164
Murder of Archbishop Thomas	1170
Conquest of Ireland begins	1171
Richard I.	1189
Richard seized by Leopold Duke of Austria	1192
John	1199
John becomes a vassal of Rome	1213
THE GREAT CHARTER granted, June 15th	1215
Henry III.	1216
Charter of the Forest	1217
The Barons' War ; Battle of Lewes, May 14th	1264
Earl Simon's Parliament	1265
Battle of Evesham, Aug. 4th	1265

	A. D.
Edward I.	1272
Conquest of Wales	1283
The Jews expelled from England	1290
Conquest of Scotland	1296
The Confirmation of the Charters	1297
Edward II.	1307
Battle of Bannockburn, June 24th	1314
Battle of Athenree, Aug. 10th	1316
Edward II. deposed ; Edward III. becomes King	1327
The late King Edward II. murdered, Sept. 21st	1327
Hundred Years' War begins	1338
Battle of Crécy, Aug. 26th	1346
Surrender of Calais	1347
Battle of Poitiers, Sept. 19th	1356
Peace of Bretigny, May 8th	1360
The Black Prince dies	1376
Richard II.	1377
The Peasant Insurrection	1381
John Wycliffe dies	1384
Richard II. deposed ; HOUSE OF LANCASTER ; Henry IV. becomes King	1399
William Sautree burned	1401
Battle of Shrewsbury, July 21st.	1403
Henry V.	1413
Hundred Years' War renewed	1415
Battle of Azincourt, Oct. 25th	1415
Treaty of Troyes, May 21st	1420
Henry VI.	1422
Jack Cade's insurrection	1450

	A.D.
Wars of York and Lancaster ; first battle of St. Albans . . .	1455
Battle of Wakefield, Dec. 31st	1460
HOUSE OF YORK :—Edward IV.	1461
Battle of Tewkesbury, May 4th	1471
Edward V.; Richard III.	1483
Battle of Bosworth, Aug. 22nd	1485
THE TUDORS :—Henry VII.	1485
Perkin Warbeck hanged	1499
Henry VIII.	1509
Battle of Flodden, Sept. 9th	1513
Marriage of Henry with Katharine of Aragon declared null and void	1533
The Papal power in England set aside	1534
Wales incorporated with England ; dissolution of the lesser monasteries ; Anne Boleyn beheaded	1536
The greater monasteries dissolved ; Act of the Six Articles . . .	1539
Ireland raised to the rank of a Kingdom	1542
Edward VI.	1547
Battle of Pinkie, Sept. 10th	1547
Mary	1553
Wyatt's insurrection ; Jane Grey beheaded ; reconciliation with Rome	1554
Ridley and Latimer burned	1555
Calais taken by the French	1558
Elizabeth	1558
Act of Supremacy	1559
Mary of Scotland beheaded	1587
The Spanish Armada defeated	1588
Charter granted to the East India Company	1600

	A.D.
HOUSE OF STUART :—James I.	1603
The Gunpowder Plot discovered, Nov. 5th	1605
Translation of the Bible finished	1611
Charles I.	1625
Petition of Right, June 7th	1628
The Long Parliament meets, Nov. 3rd	1640
Irish Rebellion	1641
The Civil Wars ; Charles sets up his standard at Nottingham, Aug. 22nd	1642
Battle of Naseby, June 14th	1645
Second Civil War ; battle of Preston, Aug. 17th	1648
Charles I. beheaded, Jan. 30th	1649
The Commonwealth	1649
Oliver Cromwell in Ireland	1649
Battle of Dunbar, Sept. 3rd	1650
Battle of Worcester, Sept. 3rd	1651
War with Holland	1652
Cromwell turns out the Parliament, April 20th	1653
The Protectorate ; Oliver Cromwell , Dec. 16th	1653
Jamaica taken	1655
Richard Cromwell	1658
The Long Parliament reassembles	1659
The Convention meets ; Restoration of King Charles II.	1660
The Plague Year	1665
The Great Fire of London	1666
The Dutch burn the ships at Chatham	1667
Habeas Corpus Act	1679
James II.	1685
Battle of Sedgemoor, July 6th	1685

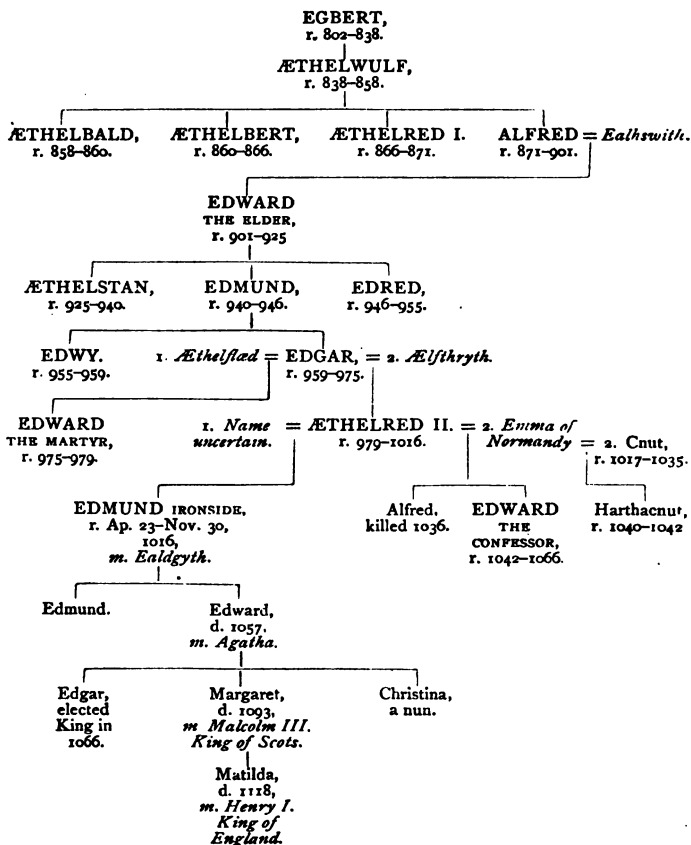
	A.D.
Trial of the Seven Bishops, June	1688
Landing of the Prince of Orange, Nov. 5th	1688
Flight of James from Whitehall, Dec. 11th	1688
Declaration of Right; the Convention bestows the crown upon William and Mary, Feb. 13th	1689
Bill of Rights	1689
Battle of the Boyne, July 1st	1690
Surrender of Limerick, Oct. 3rd	1691
National Debt begins	1693
Bank of England founded; death of Mary; William III.	1694
Act of Settlement	1701
Anne	1702
Battle of Blenheim; Gibraltar taken	1704
Union with Scotland, May 1st	1707
Peace of Utrecht	1713
HOUSE OF HANOVER:—George I.	1714
Jacobite Rebellion	1715
George II.	1727
Battle of Dettingen	1743
Jacobite Rebellion	1745
Battle of Culloden, April 16th	1746
Battle of Plassy, June 23rd	1757
Canada won	1760
George III.	1760
The North American colonies declare their independence, July 4th	1776
Battle of the Nile, Aug. 1st	1798
Union with Ireland, Jan. 1st	1801
Battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21st	1805

	A. D.
The Peninsular War	1808—1814
The Regency	1811
Battle of Waterloo, June 18th	1815
George IV.	1820
Catholic Emancipation Act, April 13th	1829
William IV.	1830
Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened	1830
The Reform Bill, June 7th	1832
Abolition of Slavery, Aug. 28th	1833
Victoria	1837
Abandonment of the protective duties upon corn	1846
Battle of the Alma, Sept. 20th	1854
Indian Mutiny	1857
Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick formed into one Dominion under the name of Canada	1867
The Reform Bill, Aug. 15th	1867
The Irish Church disestablished	1869
Ballot Bill	1872

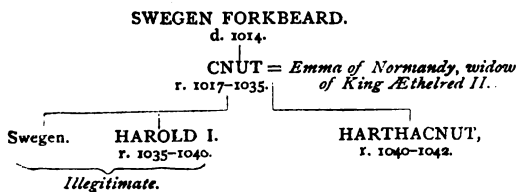
GENEALOGICAL TABLES.

(These Tables, being intended only to illustrate historical points mentioned in the text, are not to be taken as full genealogies.)

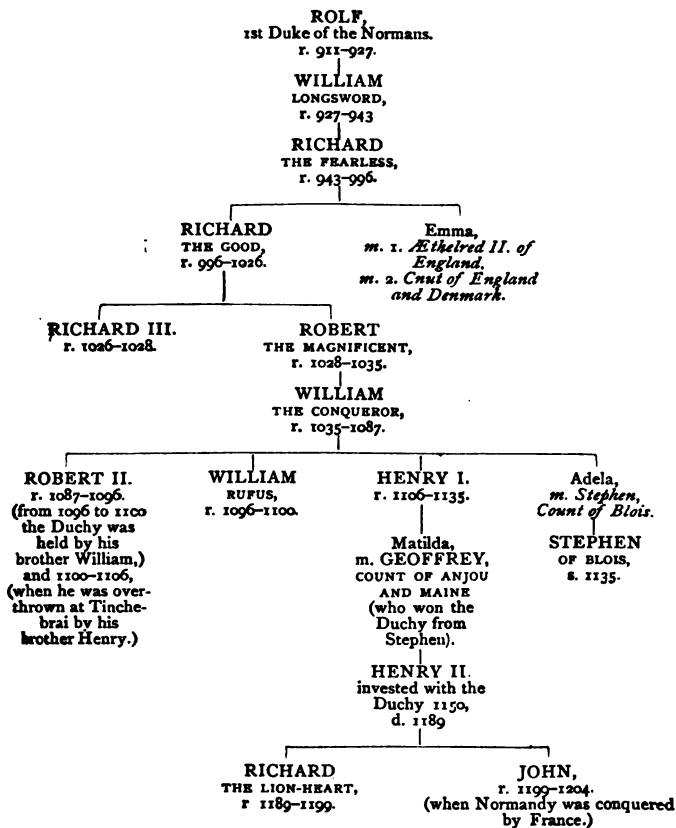
KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF CERDIC, FROM EGBERT. (P. II.)



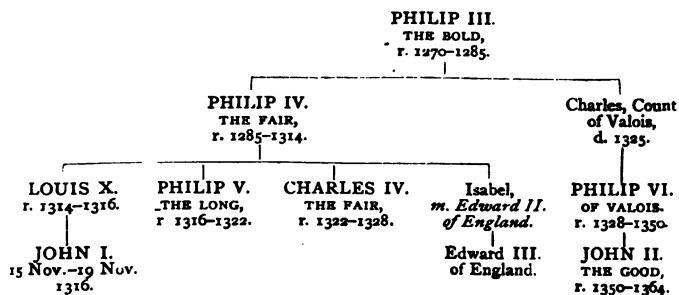
THE DANISH KINGS, (P. 21.)



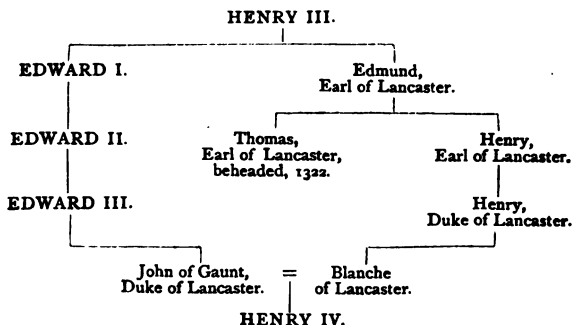
DUKES OF THE NORMANS. (Pp. 15-20-24-37.)



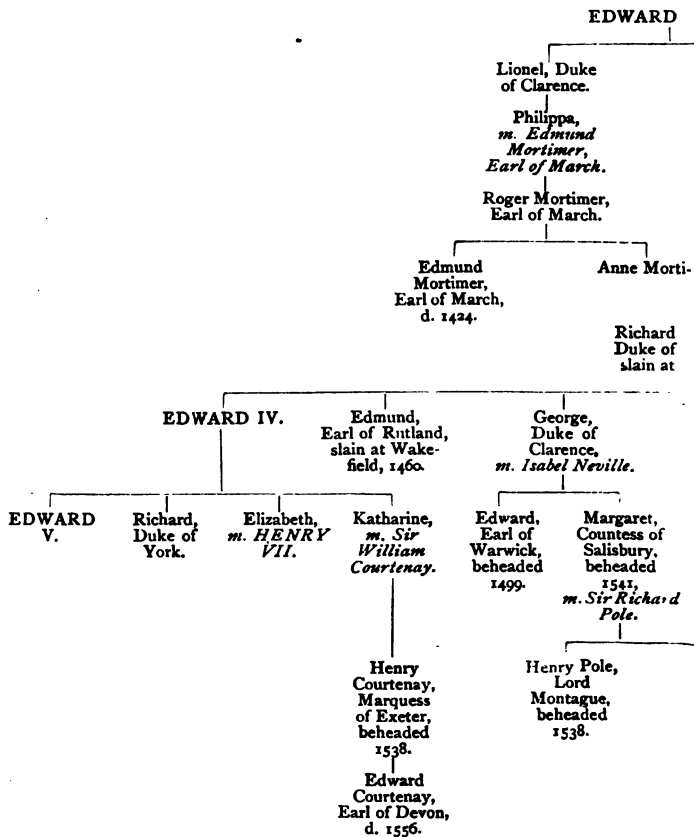
Claim of EDWARD III. to the French Crown. (P. 76.)



Descent of HENRY IV. (P. 85.)

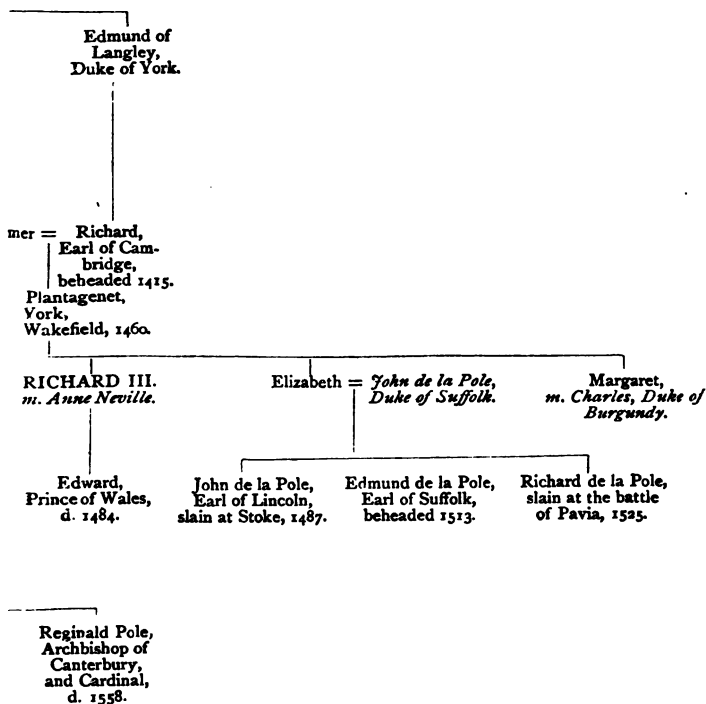


HOUSE OF YORK.



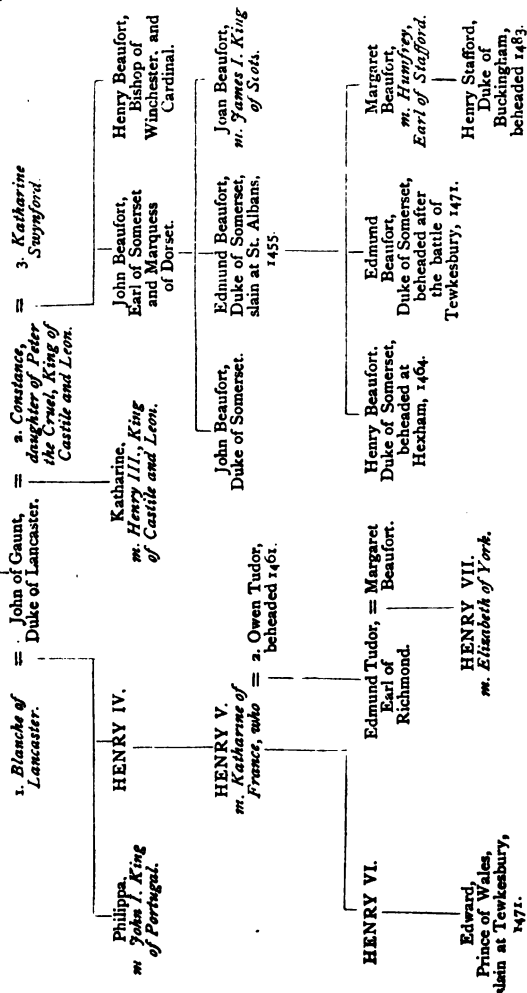
(Pp. 88-99-108-111-119-128.)

III.



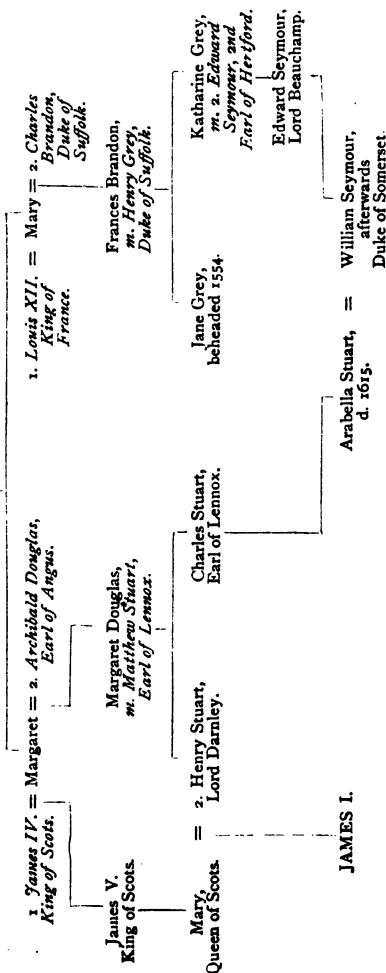
HOUSE OF LANCASTER. (Pp 95, 99, 107.)

EDWARD III.



DESCENDANTS OF THE DAUGHTERS OF HENRY VII. (Pp. 113, 115, 121, 125, 133, 140, 141.)

HENRY VII.



THE SOVEREIGNS

*Since the***WILLIAM I.**
*m. Matilda*Robert,
Duke of Normandy,
b. about 1056,
d. 1134.William,
Count of Flanders,
b. 1101, d. 1128.**WILLIAM II.**
b. about 1060,
d. 1100.Henry,
b. 1155, d. 1183.**RICHARD I.**
b. 1157, d. 1199.

OF ENGLAND.

Norman Conquest.

b. about 1027, d. 1087.
of Flanders.

HENRY I.
b. 1068,
d. 1135.
*m. 1. Matilda of
Scotland.*

Matilda,
d. 1167,
*m. 2. Geoffrey,
Count of
Anjou.*

HENRY II.
b. 1133, d. 1189
*m. Eleanor of
Aquitaine.*

Geoffrey,
b. 1158, d. 1186.
*m. Constance,
heiress of
Britanny.*

Arthur,
Duke of
Britanny,
b. 1187.

Adela,
d. 1137.
*m. Stephen,
Count of
Blois.*

STEPHEN,
d. 1154.
*m. Matilda
of Boulogne.*

Eustace,
Count of
Boulogne.
d. 1153.

William,
Count of
Boulogne.

JOHN,
b. 1166, d. 1216.
*m. 2. Isabel of
Angoulême.*

HENRY III.
b. 1207, d. 1272.
*m. Eleanor of
Provence.*

EDWARD I.
b. 1239, d. 1307.
*m. 1. Eleanor
of Castile.*

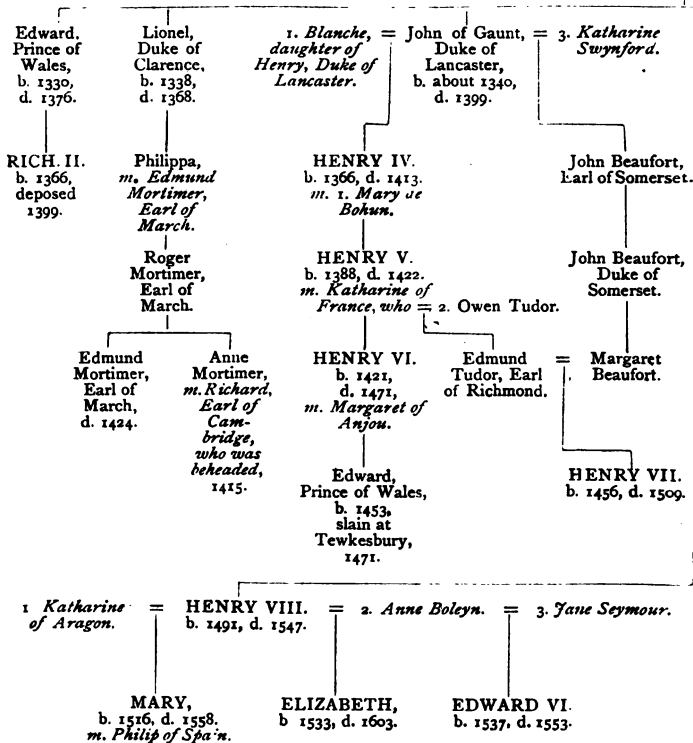
EDWARD II.
b. 1284,
murdered 1327.
*m. Isabel of
France.*

EDWARD III.
b. 1312, d. 1377.
*m. Philippa of
Hainault.*

[See next page.]

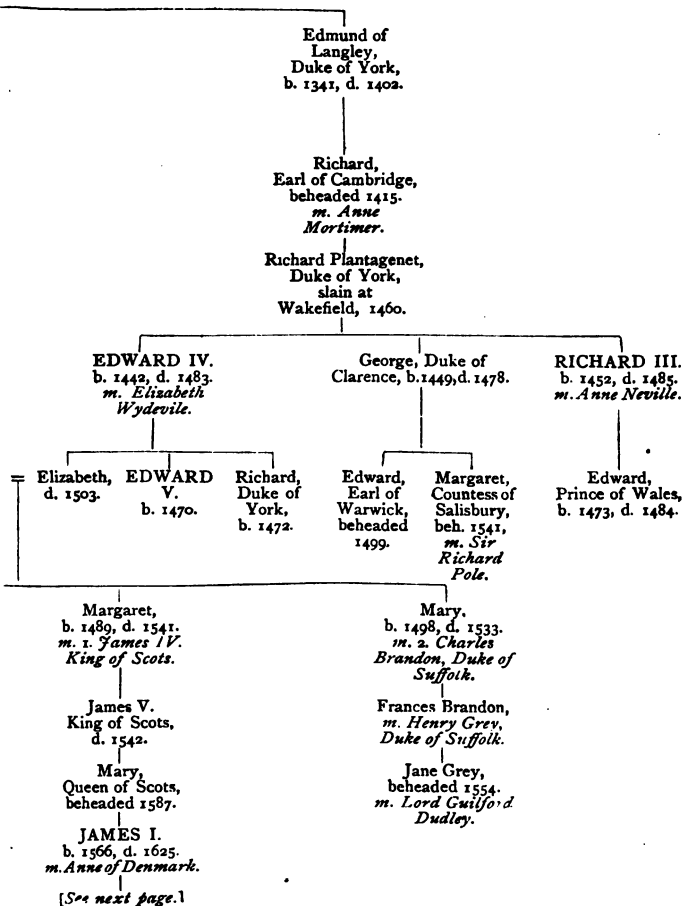
THE SOVEREIGNS

EDWARD



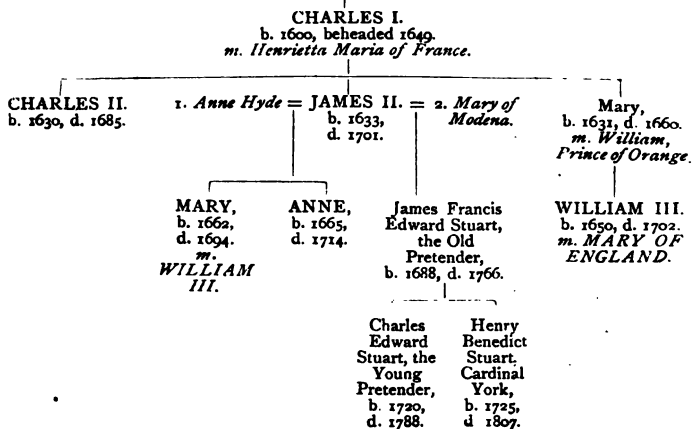
OF ENGLAND—continued.

III.



THE SOVEREIGNS

JAMES



OF ENGLAND—continued.

I.

Elizabeth,
b. 1596, d. 1662.
*m. Frederick,
Elector Palatine.*

Sophia,
d. 1714.
*m. Ernest Augustus,
Elector of Hanover.*

GEORGE I.
b. 1660, d. 1727.
*m. Sophia Dorothea
of Zell.*

GEORGE II.
b. 1683, d. 1760.
*m. Caroline of
Brandenburg-
Anspach.*

Frederick,
Prince of Wales,
b. 1707, d. 1751.

GEORGE III.
b. 1738, d. 1820.
*m. Charlotte of
Mecklenburg-
Strelitz.*

GEORGE IV.
b. 1762, d. 1830.
*m. Caroline of
Brunswick-
Wolfenbüttel.*

Charlotte,
b. 1796, d. 1817.

WILLIAM IV.
b. 1765, d. 1837.

Edward,
Duke of Kent,
b. 1767, d. 1820.

Ernest Augustus,
King of Hanover,
b. 1771, d. 1851.

VICTORIA,
b. 1819,
*m. Prince Albert of
Saxe-Coburg and
Gotha.*

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN.

The Britons; Ireland and Scotland (1)—the Roman conquest; invasion of Julius Cæsar; description of the Britons (2)—Claudius; Caractacus (3)—destruction of the Druids; Queen Boadicea (4)—Agricola (5)—Hadrian and Severus (6)—the British Church; St. Alban (7).

1. **The British Isles.**—*England* has its name from the *Angles* or *English*, of whom we shall not speak till our next chapter, as they were not the first owners of the land. They found already dwelling in it a Celtic race, the *Britons*, who are the earliest inhabitants of whom we have any historic knowledge, and who still exist as a people under the name of *Welsh*. These are supposed to have conquered, and rooted out from the country, a savage race, remains of whose weapons and tools have been found in their tombs or *crom-lechs*. The Island of *Ierne*, *Scotia*, or *Ireland* was inhabited by another Celtic people, the *Scots*, who afterwards colonized or conquered a district of *Caledonia* or North Britain, which thus came to be called from them *Scotia* or *Scotland*.

2. **The Roman Conquest.** *Julius Cæsar*.—At the time when our knowledge of the Britons begins, the Romans were the most powerful nation of the world; and it was their

great general, *Caius Julius Cæsar*, who first attempted to conquer Britain, hitherto only known to those merchants who traded with the tribes on the sea-coast. Cæsar first passed over into Britain in Aug. 55 B.C., landing at Deal. The next year he came again, but neither time did he make any lasting conquest, or leave any troops behind him. He only saw the southern part of the island, and gives to the Kentish people the praise of being the most civilized of the Britons. The population was large, the buildings and cattle numerous. The Britons stained themselves blue with woad, which gave them a terrible appearance in battle. They employed both cavalry and chariots, and were remarkable for their skill in driving, and the activity with which they leapt down to fight on foot and sprang back again to their cars. Their priests were called *Druids*, and human sacrifices were offered to their gods. After Cæsar's two expeditions, Britain became much better known to the rest of the world. At the beginning of the Christian æra, its exports are said to have comprised corn and cattle, gold and silver, tin, lead, and iron, skins, slaves, and hunting dogs. Pearls were also found, but of a poor kind.

3. *Claudius*.—In the time of the Emperor *Claudius*, who himself came over here in A.D. 43, the Romans really began to conquer Britain. One who struggled the hardest against the invaders was *Carádoc*, called by the Romans *Caractacus*, King of a tribe dwelling by the Severn; but he was at last taken and sent prisoner to Rome. When he saw the stately streets, he expressed his wonder that men who had such wealth at home should covet his poor cottage in Britain; and the Emperor, struck with his bold bearing, instead of putting him to death, the usual fate or a captive, gave him his freedom.

4. *Boadicea*.—In A.D. 61 *Suetonius Paulinus*, the Roman governor, being determined to root out the Druids, attacked

their sacred isle of *Mona* (now *Anglesey*). A strong force of Britons defended the shore; the Druids stood around, calling down the wrath of heaven upon the invaders; women with streaming hair and torches in their hands rushed wildly to and fro. For a moment the Romans quailed with superstitious terror; but, recalling their courage, they advanced, and warriors, Druids, priestesses, were overwhelmed, the altars destroyed, and the sacred groves cut down. Meanwhile the subject Britons broke out into revolt under the leadership of *Buddug* or *Boadicea*, widow of a King of the *Icenians*, a tribe dwelling in what are now Norfolk and Suffolk. *Boadicea*, having offended the Roman officer commanding at *Camulodunum* (Colchester), had by his orders been publicly scourged, and her two daughters had been subjected to brutal outrage. Breathing vengeance, the high-spirited Queen gathered together her own and the neighbouring tribes, stirred them by a fiery speech, and herself led them to battle. They massacred the garrisons and burnt the Roman towns of *Londinium* (London), *Verulamium* (St. Albans), and *Camulodunum*; but, on the return of Suetonius, they were defeated with great slaughter near *Londinium*. *Boadicea* died soon after—a natural death, as some say; according to others, she poisoned herself in despair.

5. *Agricola*.—The true conqueror of Britain was *Cnaeus Julius Agricola*, a wise and good man, who was its governor from A.D. 78 to 84. He built a line of forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde to keep off the wild North-Britons whom he could not subdue, sailed round the north of the island, and found out the Orkneys. He ruled with justice, checked the extortions of the Roman tax-gatherers, and encouraged the natives to build temples, courts of justice, and good dwelling-houses. Towns were raised throughout the land, and excellent roads made, some of which remain at this day. Many Romans settled in Britain, of whose

villas, or country-houses, traces are here and there still to be seen; while the native chieftains learned to speak Latin, and affected the dress and manners of their conquerors.

6. **Hadrian and Severus.**—In 120 the Emperor Hadrian visited Britain, and, not being able to keep all the land won by Agricola, raised an earthwork from the Tyne to the Solway Frith. A fresh dyke, however, was built along Agricola's line under the Emperor Antoninus Pius in 139. Still the Caledonians gave trouble, until between 207 and 210 the Emperor Severus came in person to put them down, and built a chain of stone forts along the line of Hadrian's dyke. Severus died in 211 at *Eboracum*, now called *York*.

7. **The British Church.**—At what time Britain became Christian is not known. Its first martyr is said to have been *St. Alban*, who was put to death in 304 near Verulam; the spot where he was martyred being afterwards marked by the abbey and town bearing his name.

CHAPTER II.

ENGLAND.

Decline of the Roman power; the Picts and Scots; the Teutonic tribes; the Roman Wall; recall of the Roman troops; the English conquest; the Welsh (1)—kingdom of Kent; legend of Hengest and Horsa; kingdom of Wessex; Arthur; kingdom of Northumberland; of the Mercians; of Sussex, Essex, and East Anglia; the Bretwalda (2)—religion (3)—government; the King; earl, churl, thane, and thrall; the Witan; mark, hundred, and shire (4).

1. **The English Conquest.**—In the fourth century, when the power of Rome was going down, the free Celts of the north, the *Picts* and *Scots*, began to pour into the Roman

province of Britain, while new enemies attacked the island by sea. These latter were *Teutonic* tribes, speaking dialects of the *Low-Dutch* or *Low-German* tongue, who came from the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser in North-Germany. About the year 400 the Romans joined the forts of Severus by a wall, parts of which are still to be seen ; and ten years later, the Emperor *Honorius* withdrew all his troops from Britain, and left the natives to resist their many enemies as they best might. The greater part of the country was now conquered by these Teutons, the founders of the English nation, among whom three tribes stand out above the rest, the *Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes*. These grew into one people under the name of *Anglo-Saxons*, or more commonly of *Angles* or *English*; and the part of Britain they dwelt in was called *England*. They were fierce heathen, who slew or enslaved those whom they overcame, and drove the rest into the western part of the island. They spoke of the Britons as *Welsh*, that is, strangers ; while the Britons called them all *Saxons*, as the descendants of the Celts in *Wales* (which has its name from the Welsh), in Ireland, and the Highlands do to this day.

2. *The English Kingdoms*.—According to ancient tradition, the first Teutonic Kingdom in this island was that of *Kent*, which has always kept its British name. *Gwrtheyrn* or *Vortigern*, a native prince, was ill-advised enough to invite two *Jutish* chiefs, the brothers *Hengest* and *Horsa*, to help him against the Picts. The strangers came over with their followers in three *keels* or ships, defeated the Picts, and then, thinking they might as well conquer for themselves, sent over for their countrymen in North-Germany, telling them how good the land was, and how weak were its people. The Britons, nevertheless, had a long struggle with them ; but the Jutish adventurers at last got the better, founding in 449 the Kingdoms of *East* and *West Kent*. The Kingdom

of the *West-Saxons*, or *Wessex*, was founded by two Saxon chiefs, *Cerdic* and his son *Cynric*, who, landing in 495, made themselves Kings of the part now called Hampshire. A British prince, *Arthur* by name, who has become more famous by the romances and poems about him than for his real exploits, in 520 defeated the Saxons at *Badbury* in Dorsetshire, and thus checked their western conquests for a whole generation ; but later on, they pushed their way, and their kingdom grew larger and larger. In 547 *Ida* the Angle founded the *Kingdom of the Northumbrians*—the land from the Humber to the Firth of Forth, ruled sometimes by one King, sometimes by two. The *Kingdom of the Mercians*, which was mainly Anglian, took in the midland country. The *Kingdoms of the South-Saxons*, or *Sussex* ; of the *East-Saxons*, or *Essex* ; and of the *East-Angles*, which was divided into the *North-folk* and *South-folk* (*Norfolk* and *Suffolk*), were less powerful. These seven chief kingdoms are sometimes spoken of by modern authors as the *Heptarchy*, that is, the Rule of Seven ; but the name is misleading, as there were at no time seven regular and orderly states. They were for ever fighting, not only with the Welsh, but among each other, and their number was sometimes more and sometimes fewer. At times, some one King gained a certain authority over his fellows, in which case he was termed a *Bretwalda*, or “Wielder of Britain.”

3. Religion.—The faith of the English was much the same as that of the other Teutonic tribes—heathenism, though not of a degraded form. *Woden*, called by the Danes *Odin*, was their chief god, the giver of valour and victory ; after him came *Thunder*, better known by his Danish name of *Thor*, the ruler of the sky ; and many other gods and goddesses. The names of the days of the week, as Wednesday or *Woden's day*, Thursday or *Thunder's day*, still preserve the memory of some of these deities.

4. **Government.**—The English royal houses all claimed descent from the God Woden; but, though the King was taken from the kingly line, he was nevertheless elected; and a child, or a man thought incompetent, would be passed over in favour of a kinsman better fitted for the office. Part of the land belonged to the State, and part was allotted to individuals, the King having his private estates like other people. But as he could, with the consent of his council, make grants of the *folkland* or public land, it came to be looked on as the property of the Crown. All landholders were under three obligations,—to serve in the *fyrð*, or militia, and to repair fortresses and bridges. Freemen were divided into *Earls* and *Churls*, terms best expressed in modern language by the words “gentle” and “simple;” and the churl was expected to live under some lord, whom he followed to battle. Every King or other great man had his own *thegns* (now spelt “*thane*”), warriors who devoted themselves to his service in peace and war. As it was held an honour to serve a King, the thanes grew into gentlemen and nobles. There were also the thralls or slaves, who were most numerous along the Welsh border, where many Welshmen were taken prisoners and made bondsmen. But men might become slaves in other ways than being captured in war. They might be driven by poverty to sell themselves, or be enslaved by law as punishment for some crime; or they might be born in slavery.

The King was not absolute (that is, he did not govern by himself), but was guided by a kind of Parliament, called the *Witena-gemót*, or *Meeting of the Wise*, and often simply the *Witan* or Wise Men. All freemen might take part in the Meeting; but as the Kingdoms grew larger the mass of the people soon found it impracticable to do so;—for example, a common man at York was not likely to attend a Meeting at Winchester or London. So the Meeting shrank

on ordinary occasions into something more like our House of Lords, attended only by the great men—the *Ealdormen*, who were much like Lords-Lieutenant of counties; the *King's thanes*; and, after the country became Christian, by the *Bishops* and *Abbots*. We often hear, however, of the Londoners taking part in Meetings held in that city. The powers of the Witan were large: they elected the King; and they and he together made laws and treaties, and appointed or removed the officers of the State. The people, however, in small matters governed themselves. The *mark* or township had its own little court and meeting, still continued in part under the name of “parish vestry,” for judging and settling its affairs; and so had the *hundred*, a division of the *shire* or county. So too the *shire* had its court and meeting, presided over by the Ealdorman and the Sheriff, with whom, in Christian times, was joined the Bishop.

CHAPTER III.

THE CONVERSION OF ENGLAND.

Rome; the conversion of Kent (1)—the conversion of the Northumbrians; the Scots missionaries (2).

I. *Conversion of Kent.*—The heathen English had learned nothing from the Christian Welsh, and their conversion was owing in the first instance to Rome, which was still considered the greatest city of the Western world, and whose Bishop, commonly called *Pope*, that is, Father, was held to be chief of all Bishops in the West. *Gregory the Great*, who was made Pope in 590, is said to have become interested in the English from seeing some beautiful long-haired boys from *Deira* (Yorkshire), standing for sale

in the slave-market at Rome. Well were they called *Angles*, he said, for they had the faces of *angels*; and sorrowing that forms so fair should have no light within, he at once conceived a wish for the conversion of England. So after he had become Pope, he, in 597, sent into Britain a band of monks having at their head *Augustine*, afterwards styled Saint. *Æthelbert King of Kent*, who was the most powerful prince in Southern England, had married *Bertha*, daughter of Charibert, one of the Frankish kings in Gaul. Though himself a heathen, he had agreed to allow his wife, as being a Christian, free exercise of her religion, and he now consented to listen to Augustine and his companions. The meeting took place in the Isle of Thanet, and, by Æthelbert's wish, in the open air, because spells and charms, which he feared the strangers might use, were supposed to have less power out of doors. After hearing what they had to say, he gave them a house in the royal city of Canterbury. Ere long they converted Æthelbert, whose example was freely followed by many. Augustine became the first *Archbishop of Canterbury*, and his cathedral, although it has been many times rebuilt, still remains the *metropolitan* or mother church of England. He consecrated a *Bishop of London*, for whom King Æthelbert built the church of St. Paul. The Church services, introduced untranslating by the missionaries, were in *Latin*, which, though an unknown tongue in England, was still understood in other parts of Western Christendom.

2. **The Conversion of the Northumbrians.**—*Eadwine*, or as we now write his name, *Edwin*, of Deira, mounted the Northumbrian throne in 617, and became the greatest King in Britain. His wife *Æthelburh*, daughter of Æthelbert of Kent, was a Christian; and to the Bishop *Paulinus*, whom she brought with her, the conversion of her husband was due. York Minster, at first a simple wooden church, was

founded by Edwin, who was there baptized. But after he had fallen fighting against the heathen *Penda King of the Mercians*, many of his people returned to the old gods. The work of conversion began again under *Oswald*, who became King in 634. Having been baptized by the Scots of Caledonia, he applied to them for teachers for his people. *Aidan*, a monk from the monastery of Iona, was sent on this request, and fixed his episcopal see in *Lindisfarne*, since called *Holy Island*. Through his own and his countrymen's labours, most of the Northumbrians soon became Christians; but the faith of the common people in out-of-the-way districts was often mixed with heathenism. *Cuthbert*, a Northumbrian monk of Melrose, who was made Bishop of Lindisfarne in 685, and was afterwards revered as the great saint of the North, devoted himself to teaching them, and preaching throughout the villages, choosing particularly those which were so difficult to get at that other missionaries avoided them.

The other kingdoms of England were gradually converted during the seventh century.

CHAPTER IV.

WESSEX.

Northumberland; Offa of Mercia; Ine of Wessex; the Bretwalda Egbert (1)—*the Danes* (2)—*St. Patrick; the Danes in Ireland* (3)—*Æthelwulf and his sons; Ragnar Lodbrog; St. Edmund* (4)—*Alfred; story of the cakes; taking of the Raven; story of Alfred in the Danish camp; treaty of Wedmore; Danish settlements* (5)—*Alfred's government; death of Alfred* (6)—*Edward the Elder; Lordship of Britain* (7)—*Rolf the Northman* (8).

1. Rise of Wessex.—For some time Northumberland took the lead in England; then Mercia rose to power under

Offa, who reigned from 757 to 796. He raised a dyke, called by his name, from the Wye to the Dee, to guard the land he had taken from the Welsh. Gradually Wessex, which was ruled by the descendants of Cerdic, got the mastery. *Ine*, who became its King in 688, is famous as a lawgiver. He, too, waged war with the Welsh, and also built the town of *Taunton*, probably as a frontier fortress. In 802, *Ecgbert* or *Egbert* succeeded to the throne of Wessex, and brought all the English kingdoms under his power. He became King by conquest of all the Saxons and Jutes, and Lord of the East-Angles, Mercians, and Northumbrians, whose Kings consented to be his *men* or vassals. The Welsh of Cornwall and Wales also submitted to him ; but his later years were marred by the increasing ravages of the Northern pirates.

2. **The Danes or Northmen.**—The *Scandinavians*, or *Northmen*, were a Teutonic people, who gradually formed the Kingdoms of *Sweden*, *Denmark*, and *Norway*. As those of them who entered England were chiefly Danes, the English writers often speak of the Scandinavians in general by that name. Among these people, piracy was an honourable profession, and men of the highest rank took to the roving life of a "Sea-king ;" that is, a leader of *vikings* or pirates. Their practice was to sail up the rivers in their *æscs* or *ashwood* galleys, and, obtaining horses in the country, make rapid forays over the mainland, plundering, burning, and slaying. They spoke a kindred tongue to English, and, worshipping the same gods as the heathen English had done, singled out with especial delight churches, monasteries, and priests for destruction. Nevertheless they for the most part made little difficulty about forsaking their own religion whenever there was anything to be gained by conversion. Never to flinch in fight, or shed a tear, even for their dearest kinsfolk, and to be as reckless in meeting as in inflicting death, summed up their ideas of honour and duty.

3. **The Danes in Ireland.**—The Scots of *Ireland* had been converted to Christianity in the fifth century, chiefly, it is said, through the exertions of *St. Patrick*, a famous missionary whose origin and country are matters of doubt. His disciples carried on his work: churches and monasteries were founded; learning was cultivated at a time when it had almost died out elsewhere, and the Irish schools were sought by strangers from England, Gaul, and Germany. Nevertheless the people made but slow progress towards civilization, and this was checked altogether by invasions of the Danes. At last the pirates settled upon the sea-coast, and the native Irish, driven into the bogs and the forests, fell back into little better than savages.

4. **The Danish Wars. Æthelwulf and his Sons.**—Egbert was succeeded in 838 by his son *Æthelwulf*, and he by his four sons, *Æthelbald*, *Æthelbert*, *Æthelred I.*, and *Ælfred* (or, as we now write it, *Alfred*), who all reigned one after the other, none of the first three living long. Under *Æthelred* began the great Danish war, as to the cause of which there are many Northern legends. One tale is that *Ragnar Lodbrog*, a mighty Sea-King, was shipwrecked on the Northumbrian coast. There the King of the country, *Ælla*, threw him into a dungeon full of poisonous snakes, under whose bites he expired, chanting to the last a wild song recounting his exploits, and boasting that "he died laughing." The facts are that in 866 "a great heathen army," under the command of *Ingvar* and *Ubba*, said to be sons of *Ragnar*, landed in East-Anglia, and in the two next years overran Northumberland and Mercia. In 870 they again invaded East-Anglia, and put its young King *Edmund* to death. Edmund, according to legend, was offered his life and kingdom if he would forsake Christianity and reign under them. On his refusal they bound him to a tree, scourged him, made him, in savage sport, a mark for their arrows, and at last struck off his head.

He was honoured as a martyr, and the Abbey of *St. Edmundsbury* was afterwards erected over his grave.

5. *Alfred, 871-901.*—*Alfred*, when a child of four years old, had been sent by his father to Rome, where Pope *Leo IV.* adopted him as his godson. At nineteen he married, and it is said that during his wedding feast he was seized with fearful pain, which, baffling all the medical skill of the time, for the next twenty years of his life kept frequently attacking him ; if so, it is the more wonderful how brave and vigorous he was. At the age of twenty-two he became King, and a hard fight he had of it. For seven years he maintained himself, until early in 878 the army under *Guthrum*, a Danish chief who had possessed himself of East-Anglia, made a sudden raid upon Wessex, and overran the country. Many of the people fled beyond sea ; the rest submitted, while *Alfred*, with a few followers, disappeared among the swamps and woods of Somersetshire. At one time—so runs a tale which appears to have come to us from a ballad—he stayed in disguise with a neat-herd, who kept his secret even from his wife. One day the woman having set some cakes to bake at the fire by which *Alfred* was sitting mending his bow and arrows, returned to find her cakes burning in the sight of the unconscious King, whose mind was full of more serious matters. Flying to save them, she roundly scolded him for his neglect to turn the cakes, which she said he was only too glad to eat when hot. That same winter the Devonshire West-Saxons slew the Danish King *Ubba* in battle, and took the magic Raven banner, said to have been woven in one noontide by the three daughters of *Ragnar*. Things now began to mend, *Alfred* and his little band throwing up a small fort in *Athelney*, and thence making frequent sallies. It is said that in order to ascertain the strength of the enemy he entered their camp in the disguise of a minstrel or juggler, and there stayed

several days, amusing them and their King Guthrum with his music, until he had learned all he wanted to know. However this may be, he reappeared on a sudden at the head of the West-Saxon forces, and gave the Danes such a defeat at a place called *Ethandun*, that they soon yielded to him. Guthrum submitted to be baptized; and the Witan meeting at Wedmore, a treaty was made, by which the Danes received, as vassals of the West-Saxon King, *East-Anglia*, and part of *Essex* and *Mercia*. The Danes of Northumberland, who were not Guthrum's men, submitted to Alfred some years later. So after all Alfred's labour, the greater part of England was left in Danish hands, and consequently the English race became largely infused with Scandinavian blood. In this way it comes to pass that so many places have Danish names, marked by the ending *by*, which answers to the English *ton* or town. Thus *Streoneshalh* got the Danish name of *Whitby*, and *North weorthig* that of *Derby*.

6. Alfred's Government.—Alfred worked as hard in peace as in war. He made a collection of *dooms*, that is, laws; some taken from the Mosaic law, others from the old codes of *Ethelbert*, *Ine*, and *Offa*, adding but few of his own, because he said he did not know how those who came after him might like them. He kept up a fleet, and did all he could to revive the old seafaring spirit, which seemed to have died out. He gave largely to the poor and to churches, founded monasteries, and encouraged learned men, English and foreign, to instruct his people. Knowing Latin well, he translated many books from that language. He sent out seamen to the North on voyages of exploration; also embassies to the Pope, to the Patriarch of Jerusalem, and what is still more remarkable, to *India*, with alms for the Christian churches there, which had been founded, it is said, by the Apostles St. Thomas and St. Bartholomew. This was the

first intercourse between England and the far-off Eastern land which now forms part of the British Empire. Alfred had other wars with the Danes, but his courage and determination carried him through all, and his last years were spent in quiet. In 901 he died, and was buried at Winchester, in the new Minster, afterwards called Hyde Abbey, which he had begun, and which his son Edward finished.

7. Eadward or Edward the Elder, 901-925. The Lordship of Britain.—Alfred was succeeded by his eldest son *Edward*, who was as good a soldier, though not so good a scholar, as his father. He became more powerful than anyone before him, for at his death he was *King of the English* as far as the Humber, and *Lord of all Britain*; the *Northumbrians*, whether English, Danes, or Norwegians, the *Scots*, and the *Welsh* of *Strathclyde* (a district extending from the Firth of Clyde southwards into modern Cumberland), all owning him for their lord.

8. Rolf the Northman.—One foreign event in Edward's time had important consequences for England. There was a noted Sea-King, the Northman *Rolf*, called in French *Rou* and in Latin *Rollo*, and surnamed, it is said, "*Ganger*," that is, the Goer or Walker, because he was too tall to ride; for when mounted on one of the little horses of his country, his feet touched the ground. Rolf spent many years in plundering, until Charles the Simple, King of the West-Franks, bribed him to peace by granting him the land at the mouth of the Seine. Rolf turned Christian, and proved a good ruler. He was called Duke of the Northmen, or *Normans*, as the word was softened in French, and his land got the name of *Normandy*.

CHAPTER V.

FROM ÆTHELSTAN TO THE DANISH KINGS.

Æthelstan; *Brunanburh*; *imperial titles* (1)—*Edmund*; *grant of Strathclyde* (2)—*Edred*; *St. Dunstan* (3)—*Edwy*; *the Monks and the Seculars*; *Ælfgifu* (4) *Edgar*—*tribute of wolves' heads* (5)—*Edward the Martyr* (6)—*Æthelred the Unready*; *Danegeld*; *invasion of Swegen*; *martyrdom of Ælfsheah* (7)—*the Danish conquest*; *restoration of Æthelred* (8)—*Edmund Ironside*; *division of England* (9).

1. *Æthelstan, 925-940. Empire of Britain.*—*Æthelstan*, eldest son of *Edward*, is famous for his victory in 937 at *Brunanburh*, where he and his brother *Edmund* overthrew *Anlaf*, a Danish King from Ireland, *Constantine King of Scots*, *Owen of Cumberland*, and all the Scots and Danes and Welsh of the north. Of *Anlaf* there is a tale that he played the spy in the English camp, disguised, like *Alfred* before him, as a minstrel; and that *Æthelstan* and his nobles gave him money, which *Anlaf*, too proud to keep, buried in the ground. All that is known of the position of *Brunanburh* is that it was north of *Humber*. *Æthelstan* took *Northumberland* into his own hands, so that now there was but one king in England. He and his successors sometimes called themselves *Emperors* of Britain, to show that they were lords of the island, and that the *Emperors* of East and West had no power over them.

2. *Eadmund or Edmund the Magnificent (that is, The Doer of Great Deeds), 940-946.*—*Edmund*, a brave warrior like his brother, came to a sad end when still a young man, being stabbed by *Liofa*, a banished robber, who, having insolently seated himself at the royal board, resisted the

attempts of the King and others to turn him out. Strathclyde was granted by Edmund to Malcolm King of Scots, on condition of service in war.

3. **Eadred or Edred, 946-955.**—Edmund's sons being still children, his brother *Edred* was chosen King. He took for his adviser a wise man, *Dunstan*, afterwards styled *Saint*, who had been as a youth at the court of King *Æthelstan*, but, having turned monk, had given himself up to study, and to arts useful for the services of the Church, such as music, painting, and metal-work. By King Edmund he had been made Abbot of Glastonbury.

4. **Eadwig or Edwy, 955-959.** The Monks and the Seculars.—*Edwy*, eldest son of Edmund, though still very young, was chosen King after *Edred*'s death. The history of this time is so coloured by party spirit that it is hard to make out the truth. The main subject of dispute was the reformation of the Church. The Danish invaders had destroyed many monasteries; in those which were left discipline had become lax, and the monks lived much as they chose. Among the *secular* clergy—that is, those who were not monks, but parsons of parishes and canons of cathedral and collegiate churches—there is said to have been much ignorance and vice. Moreover, the secular clergy were often married, and this was specially hateful in the eyes of the reforming Bishops, who shared the idea which had gradually grown up in the Western Church, that the clergy ought not to marry. They accordingly set themselves with great zeal, not only to make the monks live according to their rules, but also to force the married clergy to put away their wives. Further, they tried to get all the cathedral and other great churches into the hands of monks, whom they liked better than secular clergymen, married or unmarried. The quarrel ran high, and while *Dunstan* stood at the head of the monks' party, young King *Edwy*, though no enemy to the Church, took the other side. *Edwy*'s mar-

riage was another cause of strife. It appears that his wife *Ælfgifu* (in Latin *Elgiva*) was related to him within the very numerous degrees then forbidden by the ecclesiastical law of marriage, and Dunstan's party therefore refused to consider her as the King's wife. Edwy, on his part, seems to have behaved unwisely, and in the end he drove Dunstan out of the country. Whether it was by this, or by his government in general, the King gave great offence, and in 957 all England north of Thames revolted, choosing Edwy's brother *Edgar* for its King. The next year Archbishop *Oda* prevailed on Edwy to divorce *Ælfgifu*. There is a horrible story, which happily there seems no good reason for believing, that *Oda* had her branded in the face and banished, and that when she ventured to come back his men put her to a cruel death. Nothing is really known of her end; as for Edwy, he died in 959.

5. *Eadgar* or *Edgar*, surnamed the Peaceful, 959-975.—Edwy's brother, King *Edgar*, a youth of sixteen, was now chosen by the whole people as their ruler, and his reign proved peaceable and prosperous. Like Alfred, he maintained a strong fleet, and thereby kept the country from invasion. Dunstan, now Archbishop of Canterbury, was his counsellor; and, though in many churches secular priests were turned out to make way for monks, Dunstan was too much a statesman to foster the violence of many of his party. Edgar's coronation was put off until he had reigned thirteen years. It took place at Bath in 973, after which he sailed with his fleet to Chester, where some six or eight of his vassal Kings with their fleets came to do him homage, —the ceremony by which one man declared himself vassal of another. There is a tradition that Edgar exacted of *Idwal*, a rebellious North-Welsh prince, a tribute of three hundred wolves' heads yearly, and that this he paid for three years, but omitted in the fourth, declaring that he could find no

more. Edgar left by different wives two sons, *Edward* and *Æthelred*, one about twelve and the other about six years old.

6. Eadward or Edward, surnamed the Martyr, 975-979.—There was much disorder after Edgar's death, for the parties of the monks and the seculars at once began to quarrel again. Besides this, they disputed as to which of Edgar's sons should be King; but finally the elder, *Edward*, was elected. After a reign of less than four years, the young King was murdered at Corfes Gate (Corfe Castle). He was called "the Martyr," a name which the English then readily gave to any good man unjustly slain. The story goes that young Edward, returning tired and thirsty from hunting, stopped at the door of his stepmother, *Ælfthryth* (in Latin *Elfrida*). She came out to welcome him; but while he was eagerly draining the cup presented to him he was stabbed by one of her attendants. He at once put spurs to his horse and galloped off, but sinking from the saddle his foot caught in the stirrup, and he was dragged along till he died. It is added that the child *Æthelred*, for whose sake the murder had been committed, on hearing of his brother's death burst into tears, at which his mother *Ælfthryth* in passion beat him so unmercifully that his life was endangered.

7. *Æthelred* II., surnamed the Unready, 979-1016.—*Æthelred* was only ten years old when raised to the throne, and he had not been two years crowned when the Danes renewed their invasions. After Dunstan's death in 988, the young King gave himself up to unworthy favourites, and everything went to wrack and ruin. Weak, cowardly, cruel, he was always either leaving things undone, or doing them at the wrong time; whence he has been called "the Unready," that is, the Uncounselled, probably by a play on his name *Æthel-red*, which means *Noble-in-counsel*. After a while, he and his advisers took the course of buying off the

invaders with large sums of money, the taxes levied for the purpose being called *Danegeld*. Nothing could have suited the pirates better, and again and again they came to slay and plunder, sure of being paid in the end. In 994 the King of the Danes, *Swend* or *Swegen* "*Forkbeard*," who had been baptized as a child, but had returned to heathenism, invaded the country, and proved a terrible foe. In 1011 the Danes under one *Earl Thurkill* took Canterbury, carrying away a vast number of captives for ransom or slavery, among whom was the Archbishop *Ælfheah*. He first agreed to ransom himself, but afterwards refused, not wishing to impoverish his people, by whom the money would have to be paid. In a fit of drunken fury the Danish warriors pelted him to death with stones and ox-bones, in spite of the remonstrances of their leader Thurkill, who offered all the money he had, or might be able to get, to save the holy man's life. This happened at Greenwich, where now stands the church of St. *Alphege*, as *Ælfheah* was afterwards called.

8. The Danish Conquest. King Swegen.—At last in 1013 England was completely conquered by Swegen, who was acknowledged as King, while Æthelred took shelter with *Duke Richard the Good of Normandy*, whose sister *Emma* he had married. It must be noted to the credit of London that it beat off the invaders four times during this reign, only yielding to Swegen when all the rest of the country had done the same. Swegen died early the next year—smitten, so men fancied, by the Martyr-King Edmund, whose church at Bury he had threatened to destroy. Upon this Æthelred was recalled, but died soon after, while the war was being kept up between his son *Edmund* and Swegen's son *Cnut*.

9. Eadmund or Edmund, surnamed Ironside, April 23—Nov. 30, 1016.—There were now two Kings, *Edmunda*

and *Cnut*, one being elected in London, and the other at Southampton. Edmund, whose strength and valour gained him the name of *Ironside*, fought six pitched battles with his rival, but was at last persuaded to consent to share the kingdom with him. Edmund had *Wessex*, *East-Anglia*, *Essex*, and *London* for his dominions; *Cnut* took the rest. On Nov. 30th in the same year Edmund died, after a seven months' reign.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DANISH KINGS.

Cnut the Dane; his kingdoms; the great earldoms (1)—story of Cnut and the waves (2)—Harold I.; division between Harold and Harthacnut; death of Alfred; England reunited; Harthacnut (3).

1. **The Danish Line.** *Cnut* or *Canute*, 1017-1035.—*Cnut* the Dane was now acknowledged as King of all England. He had for some time professed Christianity, and though his deeds had hitherto been those of a barbarian, in the end he proved a good ruler. He gathered about him a standing force of from 3,000 to 6,000 paid soldiers, Danes, Englishmen, and recruits from all nations; but we never hear of his employing these *Housecarls*, or, as we should call them, household troops, for purposes of oppression. Besides being King of England and Denmark, he also won Norway and part of Sweden, but he spent most of his time in this country, which he liked better than his other dominions. He divided England into four governments, or Earldoms—*Wessex*, *Mercia*, *East-Anglia*, and *Northumberland*, which now extended only from the Humber to the Tweed, as Lothian

or northern Northumberland was held by the King of Scots, and so grew into part of Scotland.

2. Story of Cnut and the Waves.—Of the legends about Cnut, the most famous is that which records how he one day, during the height of his power, ordered a seat to be placed for him on the sea-shore, and bade the rising tide respect him as its lord, nor dare to wet his feet. The waves, regardless of the Royal command, soon dashed over his feet, and the King leapt backwards, saying, "Let all men know how empty and worthless is the power of Kings, for there is none worthy of the name but He whom heaven, earth, and sea obey by eternal laws." In accordance with the feeling thus awakened he thenceforth never wore his crown, but placed it for a memorial on the image of our Lord on the Cross.

3. Harold I., 1035-1040. Harthacnut, 1040-1042.—After Cnut's death England was parted between his sons *Harold* and *Harthacnut*. During this divided reign, *Alfred*, son of King *Æthelred* and *Emma*, came over from Normandy, hoping for a chance of the kingdom. He was seized by Harold's men, and his eyes being put out, he died soon after. In the next year, 1037, Harold was made ruler over the whole country, his fellow-king having never yet left Denmark. But on his death, Harthacnut was called to the throne, and his government was so bad that the nation rued its choice. One of his first acts was to have the dead body of his half-brother Harold dug up and cast into a morass. The London Danes buried the corpse again in their own burying-ground, which, as St. Clement *Danes*, preserves the memory of its former owners. In 1042 Harthacnut died suddenly at a marriage-feast at Lambeth. By his death England and Denmark were separated.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM EDWARD TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

Edward the Confessor ; Earl Godwin ; the favourites ; banishment, return, and death of Godwin ; Earl Harold ; death of Edward ; Westminster ; Harold named as successor (1)—Harold II. ; support of Rome given to William (2)—invasion of Harold Hardrada and Tostig ; battle of Stamford Bridge (3)—the Norman invasion ; battle of Hastings ; burial of Harold (4)—election of the Ætheling Edgar ; coronation of William (5).

1. House of Cerdic. Eadward or Edward, surnamed the Confessor or Saint, 1042-1066.—The old Royal line was now restored, the people electing *Edward*, the other son of Æthelred and Emma. Unluckily, the new King, brought up in Normandy from boyhood, was no better than a foreigner. The Normans indeed were Scandinavians by descent, but their manners, ideas, and language were French. Edward's chief desire was to bring over to England his own friends, and to load them with honours and offices ; and he even made a Norman, *Robert of Jumièges*, Archbishop of Canterbury. At the head of the party opposed to the foreigners stood *Godwin, Earl of the West Saxons*, who had married *Gytha*, sister of Ulf, Cnut's brother-in-law. Godwin was eloquent and popular, but always laboured under a suspicion that he had had a dishonourable share in Alfred's death. In 1051 *Eustace Count of Boulogne*, one of the King's friends, had a brawl with the burghers of Dover, arising out of his own insolent conduct. Godwin refused to inflict any punishment upon the Dover men, who belonged to his earldom, before they were properly tried ; and this gave such offence to the King's party that he was

banished. The next year however he returned in arms, and the Norman knights and priests were glad to get away as fast as they could. The Earl died not long after, being seized with a fit while dining with the King ; but his power passed to his son and successor *Harold*, who in fact ruled the kingdom, and who gained great credit by his victories over the Welsh. The King died in 1066, just living long enough to finish the building of an abbey on the spot where *Sebert*, first Christian King of the East-Saxons, had founded a small monastery to St. Peter, called the *West-Minster*. King *Henry III.* and his successor afterwards replaced Edward's work by the more magnificent church now standing. Edward had married *Edith*, daughter of Godwin ; but had no children. On his death-bed he recommended Earl Harold for his successor ; though, according to the Normans, he had promised that their Duke *William* should reign after him. Indeed, it is said that Harold himself, being once at the Norman court, had, willingly or unwillingly, sworn to support William. King Edward was buried in his own new Minster, where he was soon honoured as a saint ; for, though he utterly neglected his duties as a ruler, he was pious after his fashion, and the miseries the people endured under his foreign successors led them to look back upon him with regret.

2. House of Godwin. Harold II., Jan. 6—Oct. 14, 1066. —On the day of Edward's death, *Earl Harold*, though not of the Royal house, was elected by the Witan ; the next morning the late King was buried, and the new one crowned, in the West-Minster. On hearing of this, *Duke William* was speechless with rage. He resolved to appeal to the sword ; but as it did not suit his temper to appear the aggressor, he did his best to make Europe in general believe he was in the right. He sent to crave the blessing of Rome upon his enterprise, and found there an ally in the *Archdeacon*

Hildebrand, who eagerly seized the opportunity for bringing the Church of England into more complete obedience to Rome. Under *Hildebrand's* influence the Pope, *Alexander II.*, declared William the lawful claimant, and sent a consecrated banner to hallow the attack upon England.

3. *Invasion of Harold Hardrada.*—Meanwhile the North of England was invaded by *Harold*, the King of the Norwegians, a gigantic warrior surnamed *Hardrada*, that is, *Stern-in-counsel*. He was joined by the English King's brother, *Tostig*, who in the last reign had been banished for his tyrannical government of Northumberland. At *Stamford Bridge* the Norwegians were suddenly attacked, Sept. 25th, by Harold of England, who is represented in an Icelandic poem as offering *Tostig* a third of the kingdom if he would return to his allegiance; *Tostig* asked what his brother would give *Hardrada* "for his toil in coming hither?" "Seven feet of earth, or more perchance, seeing he is taller than other men." But there can have been no time for such parley. The English gained the victory, *Hardrada* and *Tostig* being among the slain.

4. *Battle of Hastings.*—The King was holding the customary victory-feast at York, when a thane of Sussex entered to announce that the Normans had landed at *Pevensey*. Making all speed, Harold marched southwards, and pitched his camp on the heights of *Senlac*. Duke William had landed unresisted on the defenceless Sussex shore, Sept. 28th, and occupied *Hastings*. The eve of battle, so the Normans aver, was spent by the English in drinking and singing, and by the invaders in prayer and confession. On the 14th October the armies joined battle. The combat was long and doubtful, but the impatience of the militia, who, despite Harold's orders, broke their ranks and rushed down the hill in pursuit of some retreating Normans, gave the first advantage to the enemy, whose archers did the rest. An

arrow pierced the eye of the English King, who, falling, was hacked in pieces by four French knights, of whom Eustace of Boulogne was one. The thanes and house-carls were slaughtered almost to a man around their fallen standard. On the morrow the aged Gytha craved the body of her son Harold, but the Duke refused to permit it Christian burial. Even to find the mangled corpse was no easy task, and two canons of Waltham made search for it without success, until they brought a former favourite of Harold's, Edith "of the swan's neck," to aid them.

5. Coronation of William.—The Londoners now elected to the throne young *Edgar*, a grandson of Edmund Ironside. He is commonly spoken of as the *Ætheling*, a title given to kings' sons. But, unsupported by the North-country, they ere long tendered the crown to the Norman Duke, whose coronation took place on Christmas Day at Westminster.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE OLD-ENGLISH AND NORMANS.

The Old-English (1)—*the ordeal* (2)—*slave-trade* (3)—*London* (4)—*literature* (5)—*the Normans*; *the Bayeux tapestry* (6)—*castles*; *church-building* (7)—*feudal tenures*; *fealty, homage, and service*; *the Barons*; *decay of feudalism* (8)—*government* (9)—*the towns*; *the gilds* (10).

1. The Old-English.—The English appear to have been a well-favoured race, from the days of Pope Gregory's "Angels" to the time when King William, returning to Normandy after his coronation, carried in his train the *Ætheling* Edgar and other young Englishmen, on whose "girlish grace" and flowing hair the French and Normans

gazed with admiration. Yet young Waltheof, one of those whose beauty is thus praised, attained to giant strength, and proved that he was no degenerate son of his father, that Earl Siward "the Strong" who figures in Shakspeare's play of *Macbeth*. The ancient English weapons were the javelin and the broadsword; for the latter the two-handed Danish axe was substituted by Cnut. The full equipment of the warrior—helm, mail-coat, shield, and axe—was of course beyond the means of the mass of the shire militia, most of whom came to the battle of Hastings without any defensive armour, and some with no better weapons than forks or sharpened stakes. Both English and Danes always fought on foot; men of the highest, even of kingly rank, using horses on the march only, and dismounting for action. The English, among whom all ranks exercised liberal hospitality, are described as consuming their substance in good cheer, while content with poor houses—unlike the Normans and French, who lived frugally in fine mansions—and as habitually indulging in coarse gluttony and drunkenness, having learned the latter vice from the Danes, and teaching both to their conquerors. They had however better amusements than mere revelry. They took great pleasure in poetry, singing, and harp-playing; and professional "gleemen," who combined the characters of juggler, tumbler, and minstrel, wandered from house to house displaying their powers. There were also outdoor sports—wrestling, leaping, racing, and hunting with net, hound, or hawk.

2. *The Ordeal*.—The *ordeal* was a method of ascertaining the guilt or innocence of an accused person by a supposed appeal to the judgment of Heaven. After certain religious rites, the accused plunged his arm into boiling water, or carried a hot iron in his hand for three paces. If in three days the scald or burn had healed, he was cleared; if not, he was guilty. A man of ill reputation was obliged to undergo a

triple ordeal, where one would suffice for persons of credit. The Normans introduced in addition the *trial by battle*, which was an appeal to Heaven by means of a duel between accuser and accused.

3. *The Slave-trade*.—The crying sin of England, even in the estimation of that age, was the slave-trade. Although the export of Christian slaves was forbidden by law, nothing could check it. The town of Bristol was the chief seat of this slave-trade, and strings of young men and women were shipped off regularly from that port to Ireland, where they found a ready market. King William was as zealous against this traffic as his predecessors, and with no better success. What the law failed to do, *St. Wulfstan*, Bishop of Worcester, effected, at least for a season. He visited Bristol repeatedly, and did not cease preaching every Sunday against the trade until he had prevailed on the burghers to abandon it.

4. *London*.—At the time of the Norman Conquest, *London*, so advantageously placed upon the Thames, was already the chief city in England, and fast displacing the old West-Saxon capital of *Winchester*. But the London of those days was surrounded by wood and water and waste land, where the deer and the wild boar roamed. The names of *Moorfields* and *Moorgate* still mark the place where once was a dreary moor or fen. Westminster Abbey was built upon what was then a thicket-grown island or peninsula, enclosed by river and streams and marshes, and called *Thorn-ey*, that is, the Isle of Thorns. By the Abbey was the Palace, where the Confessor in his later years chiefly dwelt, that he might watch the building of his Minster. The name of *Old Palace Yard* marks where his dwelling-place was; *New Palace Yard* being so called from the palace built by the Conqueror's son William Rufus.

5. *Literature*.—Among the most ancient specimens of the

literature of the Old-English is the fine poem of the hero *Beowulf* and his combats with the ogre Grendel and with a fiery dragon. This tale evidently belongs to heathen times, though the text, as we have it, has received some Christian touches. Our first Christian poet, *Cædmon*, who sang of the creation of the world, the entry of Israel into Canaan, and the mysteries of the Christian faith, was believed by himself and his contemporaries to have received his powers by the direct gift of Heaven. He had never learned aught of singing;—when sometimes at an entertainment it was determined that all the guests should sing in turn, *Cædmon*, on seeing the harp approach him, would leave in the middle of supper. On one occasion he had thus left the feast, and had lain down to sleep in the stable, the care of the beasts being committed to him that night. In a dream one stood by him and spoke: "*Cædmon*, sing me something." He pleaded ignorance; but the command was repeated: "Sing the beginning of created things." And forthwith he began to sing verses he had never heard before. In the morning he revealed his new powers, and was received by the famous Abbess *St. Hilda* into her monastery of *Streoneshalh* or *Whitby*, where she ruled over both monks and nuns. This story is told by *Bæda*, called the *Venerable*, a monk of *Jarrow*, who died in 735. He was one of the most learned men of his age; and from his chief work, "*The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*," written in Latin, we get great part of our knowledge of those times. *Ealhwine* or *Alcuin*, born about the time of *Bæda*'s death, and educated in the school of *York*, had so high a reputation as a scholar, that Charles the Great invited him over to his court to help to lay the foundations of learning in his dominions. But the literature of Northumberland to a great extent perished during the ravages of the Danes. It is thought that in King Alfred's reign the Old-

English *Chronicle* began to be put together in its present shape, after which it was regularly continued. A fine song upon the battle of Brunanburh is inserted in the Chronicle, as if prose was insufficient to express the national exultation. Other snatches of song occur throughout the Chronicle, and besides those preserved to us there appear to have been many popular ballads, sung by the gleemen, from which some of the tales about our early Kings were derived.

6. **The Normans.**—The Normans had become Christian and civilized without losing the vigour and adventurous spirit of their Scandinavian forefathers. In whatever they did, they were foremost; and though in the arts of peace they were not inventors, they acquired, improved, and spread abroad all the learning, science, and art of the age. Above all, their valour and military skill were renowned throughout Europe. They brought new strength and life to the English race, and thus the country gained by the conquest in the end, and became more free and great for it. The middle-class English—the small thanes and the townsmen—soon mixed with the foreign settlers, Norman and others; and as early as 1070 French and English were beginning to live together on good terms, and to intermarry, so that by the time of *Henry II.* it was impossible, except in the highest and lowest ranks, to distinguish one race from the other. The Norman method of warfare differed from the English and Danish, which it displaced. The Norman and French gentlemen fought on horseback armed with lance and sword, and would have thought it beneath their dignity to go into battle on foot. Of the common men a large number were archers; and in course of time the English became more expert than any other nation in the use of the long-bow. The attire and weapons both of the conquering and the conquered race are well known to us from the famous

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tapestry preserved at *Bayeux*, which represents in a series of pictures the history of the Norman Conquest. There have been many conjectures as to the origin of the tapestry, but the most probable one is that it was a gift from King William's half-brother Bishop *Odo* to his cathedral at *Bayeux*. It is thought that it may have been worked in England.

7. *Castle and Church Building*.—One of the earliest French words introduced into our language was *castle*, the name and the thing being alike foreign. Fortified towns and citadels were indeed familiar to Englishmen, but private fortresses, such as were raised first by the Confessor's favourites, were something new, and these were called *castles*. To possess one was the wish of every Norman noble; for when once his *donjon*, *keep*, or tower was built, he was king of the country round, and, until regular siege was laid to it, might laugh at the law. But though a strong, it was a dark and dreary dwelling. A splendid specimen of the donjon on its grandest scale is the *White Tower*, built for King William by *Gundulf*, Bishop of Rochester. William raised many castles of his own, to overawe rather than to defend the towns beneath them, though he wisely did not allow private ones to be reared without royal licence. The eleventh century was a great time for church-building, and the Normans in England carried on the work vigorously, almost all the bishops rebuilding their cathedral churches. St. Paul's having been destroyed or damaged by fire, *Maurice*, Bishop of London, began a mighty pile to replace it. His successors continued it, and it became the largest church in England. The style of the age, *Romanesque*, as it is called, was greatly improved by the Normans, and the new form they gave it is commonly spoken of as the *Norman* style of architecture. Its characteristic points are the round arch and massive pier, and narrow window.

Durham Cathedral, begun under Rufus by Bishop *William of St. Carilef*, and continued by his successor *Ralf Flambard*, is a fine specimen of Norman Romanesque.

8. *Feudal Tenures*.—After the coming in of the Normans *feudal* ideas and practices obtained much more dominion in England, which had hitherto not been affected by them to any great extent. The origin of *fiefs*, or lands granted by a lord to his man or vassal on condition of fidelity and service in war, and the results of thus holding land by a *feudal tenure*, as it is called, will be found explained at full length in the *General Sketch of European History* in this series. The vassal, when his fief was conferred, swore *fealty* and did *homage*. In the most complete form of homage, the vassal, bare-headed, with belt ungirt, and sword and spurs removed, knelt before his lord, between whose hands he placed his own, and promised thenceforward to become his man, and serve him with life and limb and earthly honour, faithfully and loyally. His chief duty was, when called upon by his lord, to do military service, on horseback and properly equipped, for a certain time, usually forty days in the year ; and every one of the great vassals of the Crown was bound to bring so many of these mounted followers into the field. Not laymen alone, but bishops and clerical and monastic bodies, held lands by military service, and furnished their quota of warriors, though by the Church's laws ecclesiastics might not serve in person. The *barons*, or great military tenants of the Crown, having thus little armies under them, were formidable personages when they chose to be rebellious ; but William took all possible care that the King should not, as in France, be overshadowed by his own vassals. The King was *sovereign* or supreme lord, of whom all land was supposed to be held in the first instance ; and the danger of his sovereignty becoming a mere name, as was the case in some countries,

in consequence of its being thought that the inferior vassals owed duty only to their immediate lords, and not to the King also, was avoided by the passing of a law in a Meeting held in 1086, obliging all freemen to swear fealty to William. The barons however strove hard to cripple the royal power, until the nobility of the Conquest had nearly died out, and a new baronage was raised up by Henry II. In the following history we shall find the people at first siding with the Crown, and afterwards with the barons. Harsh as the Norman Kings were, they kept down the worse tyranny of their nobles; but when the Crown had triumphed, and a new and better class of nobles had arisen, it became the barons' turn to restrain the royal despotism. As a military system feudalism after a while fell into decay; but although the main ground for its existence then disappeared, its grievances remained, until the abolition under *Charles II.* of the tenures by knight service. In order to secure the aid of the great lords, the poorer freemen often sank into the class of *villains* or serfs bound to the soil,—a condition above actual slavery, though below freedom. Slavery itself gradually died out, as in the course of ages did *villainage* likewise.

9. Government.—The Norman Conquest brought about considerable changes in the government. The *Witena-gemót* became the King's court of feudal vassals or barons, whose counsel and consent were the only check upon the Sovereign; and the chief administrator of the kingdom was an officer called *Justiciar*. The final stroke was put to a change which had been gradually coming about for some generations. The *folkland*, or public land, as much as was left of it, became Crown land, which the Sovereign could grant away at his pleasure. This right was greatly abused until, many centuries later, Parliament interfered to limit it. As the royal domain has since been under the control of Parliament, it has in fact gone back to the condition of folkland.

10. **The Towns.**—It has been sarcastically remarked that, though we are fond of boasting that the liberties of England were bought with the blood of our forefathers, it would be more generally accurate to say that they were purchased with money. This is peculiarly true in the case of the towns. At the time of the Norman Conquest we find the inhabitants of towns living under the protection of the King or other lord, to whom they paid rents and dues. But the regular payments were not in general heavy; it was the *tallages* or taxes which the foreign kings and lords laid at pleasure upon their lands and towns which were grievous. Some good, however, came out of this arbitrary taxation. As he could take what he would from them, the most selfish tyrant could not fail to see that it was his interest that his burgesses should thrive and make money, and he was therefore willing to encourage them by the grant of privileges, which he was the more ready to bestow because they were only too glad to pay for them. Henry I. granted a charter to the citizens of London, by which he gave them large privileges. Two of these may be mentioned as being the most curious, though not the most important. He permitted them to have their ancient hunting grounds, —a mighty favour from one of the Norman Kings, who were loth to let anyone hunt but themselves; and he freed them from the obligation to accept the *trial by battle*. To King John London owed the privilege of choosing its own *Mayor*, an officer who, with his French title, first appears early in the reign of Richard I. *Trade Gilds* in like manner bought charters. These *gilds* or sworn brotherhoods were very old institutions in England, and in their earliest form were associations for mutual defence against injury, or for mutual relief in poverty. Of the *craft-gilds* or associations of free handicraftsmen, the most ancient were those of the weavers. Henry I. chartered the weavers of Oxford, and

also those of London, who paid him in return eighteen marks yearly. By this London charter the right of exercising the craft within the city, Southwark, or other places belonging to London, was confined to members of the gild. The craft-gilds were in fact a kind of trade-unions, though composed of masters; but these masters were but small people, for in those days there were no great employers of labour such as there are now, and therefore no large class of hired workmen.

CHAPTER IX.

WILLIAM I.

The Norman Kings; William the Conqueror (1)—confiscations (2)—completion of the Norman Conquest; revolt of the Isle of Ely; the Ætheling Edgar; execution of Waltheof (3)—Lanfranc; William's government; Domesday; the New Forest (4)—death of William; Battle Abbey (5).

1. **The Norman Kings.** William I., surnamed the Great and the Conqueror, 1066-1087.—The Norman King was a hard and determined man, strong in body as in mind; no hand but his could bend his bow, and, until he became excessively fat, he was majestic in bearing. His wife, Queen *Matilda*, for whom he had a constant affection, was the daughter of Count Baldwin of Flanders.

2. **The Confiscations.**—According to William's view, all Englishmen had been traitors, for they had either tried to keep him out, or at least not helped to bring him in; and as traitors, all their estates might be *confiscated*, that is, taken possession of by the State. He at once confiscated a great deal, out of which he made grants to his followers;

and every fresh disturbance was made a ground for confiscating more. The result was that the country got a set of foreign nobles, and that many Englishmen either lost all they had, or sank from being great landowners into small ones ; but every one, French or English, held his lands solely from the King's grace.

3. **Completion of the Norman Conquest.**—After an absence of less than six months, William went over to Normandy, to show himself in his new dignity. Yet in truth his conquest was only begun ; and he had the west and the north still to win. That part of the country which was really in his grasp he left under *Odo Bishop of Bayeux* and *William Fitz-Osbern*, who treated the English so oppressively that the King on his return found matters in a troublous state. It took him about four years to get full possession of the land ; for there was still spirit among the people. But a revolt here and a revolt there, with no common plan or leader, were useless against so good a soldier. Aided by forces from Denmark, the Northern patriots once attacked York, where the Normans had built two castles to command the Ouse. The stalwart *Earl Waltheof*, so the story goes, took his stand by a gate ; and as the Normans pressed forth one by one, their heads were swept off by his unerring axe. William took a savage method of crushing the North-country into obedience. At the head of his troops he marched through the length and breadth of the land between York and Durham, and deliberately made it a desert. For nine years the ground remained waste, no man thinking it worth while to till it ; and even a generation later ruined towns and uncultivated fields still bore witness to the cruelty of the Conqueror. The country between the Tyne and the Tees was harried in like manner, as also Cheshire and its neighbourhood, the city of Chester being his last conquest. More than 100,000 people, then no small part of

the population, are said to have died of hunger and cold that winter. William was now master of the land, except that a band of outlaws and insurgents, chief among whom was one *Hereward*, still held together in the *Isle of Ely*. Finally even this last stronghold surrendered to William, but *Hereward* escaped, and, according to the legend, was the terror of the foreigners, until he made his peace with the King. One story says that he was nevertheless treacherously cut to pieces by a band of Normans. "Had there been three more men in the land like him, the Frenchmen would never have entered it," is said to have been the remark of one of his slayers. Of the other English leaders, the *Ætheling* Edgar settled down for some years at the Conqueror's court; *Waltheof*, after being taken for a time into high favour, was beheaded May 31st, 1076, and was honoured by his countrymen as a martyr.

4. *William's Government.*—William placed in the archbishopric of Canterbury, *Lanfranc*, a Lombard by birth, who was held to be the most learned man in Europe. Under the new Primate the Church of England was brought into closer connexion with that of Rome, and the bishoprics were gradually filled up with foreigners. The rule of the Norman King, who even tried, though with small success, to learn English, was in some points good; but in later years he grew avaricious and grasping, shutting his eyes to any oppression by his officers if it brought him in money. In 1085, after consulting with the Witan, he decreed the making of *Domesday*—the great survey of the country, in which every estate was entered, with its value at the time and in that of Edward. This work, so useful to the historian, was then looked on with distrust and indignation, as a step towards further taxation. Not a yard of land, not so much as an ox, or a cow, or a pig, was left unrecorded, so the Chronicler complains. William delighted in hunting, and

his cruel law, which condemned the deerslayer to lose his eyes, was another grievance. The *New Forest* in Hampshire was made by him, and stories are told of his destroying houses and churches which stood in his way. Long after his time, the forests continued to be a source of bitterness, on account of the severe laws for the protection of the game under which all the dwellers within them were placed. To understand how a forest could be made, it must be explained that a *forest* was not merely a *wood*, but rather any uncultivated ground.

5. **Death of William.**—In 1087 William was laying waste the borderland between France and Normandy in revenge for a stupid jest which the French King had made upon his unwieldy figure. While riding through the burning town of Mantes, and urging his men to add fresh fuel to the flames, he was pitched against the pommel of his saddle by the stumbling of his horse, and received an internal injury, of which he lingered many weeks. On his death-bed he expressed a tardy penitence for his unjust conquest of England, and above all for the harrying of the North. What he had won by wrong, he said, he had no right to give away, so he would only declare his wish that he might be succeeded in England by his second surviving son William, who had ever been dutiful to him. *Robert*, the first-born, who had more than once been in rebellion against his father, was to have Normandy, and also Maine, a province which William had conquered.

William died at Rouen in Normandy, Sept. 9th, and was buried at Caen. *Battle Abbey*, near Hastings, was built by him upon the spot where Harold's standard had stood.

CHAPTER X.

WILLIAM II.

Election of William ; rebellion of Odo ; character of William ; Ralf Flambard ; behaviour of the Royal followers (1)—Norman affairs ; Scottish affairs (2)—Flambard's financial expedients , Anselm made Primate (3)—the first Crusade ; Normandy mortgaged (4)—death of William (5)—building of Westminster Hall (6).

1. William II., surnamed Rufus, or the Red, 1087-1100.—The Conqueror's wish was fulfilled, his son *William* being elected and crowned king, Sept. 26th. But Odo of Bayeux worked upon the barons by contrasting the easy-tempered Robert with the fierce William, and raised a strong party in the Duke's favour. William thereupon made an appeal to the English, promising them the best laws they ever had, liberty of hunting on their own lands, and freedom from unjust taxes. The English answered with hearty support, and soon quelled the rebellion. In 1089, Lanfranc died, and with him all hope of good government. *Rufus*, as he was called from his ruddy complexion, inherited his father's valour, but no other of his virtues. He gave himself up to gross vice, was irreligious and blasphemous in speech, and surrounded himself with wicked and foolish companions, who gave scandal equally by their sins and their follies. His promise to impose no unjust taxes was not kept a year ; for being utterly reckless how he spent his money, he was soon in need. As an instance of his tasteless extravagance we are told that one morning when putting on a pair of new boots, he asked his chamberlain what they had cost. "Three shillings." Rufus flew into a rage : "How long has the King worn boots at so paltry a price ?

Go and bring me a pair worth a mark of silver." The chamberlain returned with a pair in reality cheaper than those rejected, and told him they had cost the price he had named. "Ay," said Rufus, "these are suitable to royal majesty." After this the chamberlain was sharp enough to charge the King what he pleased for his clothes. The King's chief adviser was now *Ralf*, a Norman priest, who got the nickname of "*Flambard*," or the Torch, and whom he afterwards made Bishop of Durham. This minister's ingenuity was employed in laying on grinding taxes, and otherwise raising money; the halter, it is said, was loosed from the robber's neck if he could promise any gain to the Sovereign. Wherever the King and the court went, they did as much damage as an invading army; for the royal followers lived at free quarters on the country people, and often repaid their hosts by plundering and selling their property, and, in wanton insolence, washing their own horses' legs with the liquor they did not drink.

2. **Norman and Scottish affairs.**—In 1090 the King attacked Robert in his Dukedom; but after a while the brothers were reconciled, and turned their joint arms against their third brother Henry, whom they drove from his stronghold on Mount St. Michael in Normandy. The King then returned to deal with an invasion of the Scots; and made a peace with their King *Malcolm*, who did him homage. Malcolm's second invasion in 1093 cost him his life, as he was killed before Alnwick. In the time between the two inroads the English King restored *Carlisle*, which had been long in ruins, built a castle there, and colonized the city with peasants from the South.

3. **Archbishop Anselm.**—Flambard's great device in the way of raising money was for the King to take possession of all vacant bishoprics and abbeys, and farm out their lands and revenues to the highest bidder. If he at last named a

new bishop or abbot, it was understood that the honour was to be paid for. The See of Canterbury had thus never been filled since Lanfranc's death. But in Lent, 1093, the King falling grievously sick, and being pricked in conscience, in his terror promised good government, and named to the archbishopric *Anselm*, an Italian by birth, and Abbot of Bec. Anselm, a man of the greatest learning and holiness, who was afterwards canonized as saint, was unwilling, and with good reason, to receive the dangerous honour; for no sooner had William got well than he fell back into worse ways than ever. The Archbishop was treated with studied harshness until, after many quarrels, he withdrew to Rome.

4. *Normandy mortgaged.*—Meanwhile Normandy, which the King had again striven to win by force, came quietly within his grasp. From early ages it had been the practice of Christians to make pilgrimages to the *Holy Land*, to pray at the sepulchre of Christ; but about this time a flame of indignation was raised throughout Europe by tales of the wrongs done by the Turks both to the native Christians of Palestine and to the pilgrims. At the call of the Pope an armed expedition termed a *Crusade*, of which an account will be found in the "*General Sketch*," set out in 1096 to rescue the Holy Sepulchre from the Mohammedans; and among those who were stirred by the prevailing enthusiasm for crusading was Robert of Normandy. To meet the expense of his undertaking, he mortgaged for 10,000 marks his dominions to his brother for five years, and set off joyously to Palestine, when William entered into possession of Normandy.

5. *Death of William.*—On the 2nd August, 1100, William, who was passionately fond of the chase, was hunting in the New Forest. Some vague suspicion of intended foul play was probably afloat, for evil dreams had been dreamed

by himself and others, and on this account he had been half persuaded not to ride that day ; but wine kindled his courage, and exclaiming, "Am I an Englishman, who will put off a journey for an old wife's fancy?" he went forth. Soon after he was found lying pierced by the shaft of a cross-bow, and in the agonies of death. Suspicion fell on one of the hunting party, *Walter Tyrell*, who fled for his life and got away to France. That he had accidentally shot the King became the common belief, but he always denied it ; and as no one ever owned to having seen Rufus struck, the matter remains in doubt. A poor charcoal-burner alone in a cart carried the King's body to Winchester, where it was buried without any religious rite ; for it was thought unseemly to bestow such upon him who had been thus cut off in the midst of unrepented sins.

6. **Westminster.**—*Westminster Hall* was first built by Rufus, whose love of architecture was one of his few better tastes ; but it was afterwards cased over and otherwise altered in the time of Richard II.

CHAPTER XI.

HENRY I.

Henry I. ; Charter of Liberties (1)—marriage with Edith-Matilda ; invasion of Duke Robert ; Normandy won by Henry (2)—dispute between Henry and Anselm (3)—the Welsh Marches ; settlement of Flemings (4)—death of the Queen ; death of William ; second marriage of Henry ; crown settled on Matilda (5)—death of Henry ; his government (6).

1. **Henry I., surnamed the Clerk or Scholar, 1100-1135.** **Charter of Liberties.**—*Henry*, youngest son of the

Conqueror, was one of the hunting-party when Rufus fell. As soon as he heard of his brother's death, he galloped for Winchester, and there made himself master of the royal treasures. Three days later, he was crowned at Westminster, thus forestalling his brother Robert, who was still loitering on his way home from the Crusade. To reconcile all to his accession, he put out a *Charter of Liberties*, in which he promised to the Church neither to retain, sell, nor farm vacant benefices ; and to his vassals freedom from sundry exactions and restrictions, bidding them make the same concessions to their own vassals. To the nation at large he promised that the laws of King Edward should be put in force.

2. **Normandy won.**—The evil companions of Rufus were removed, and Archbishop Anselm was recalled. Further to win the people's hearts, Henry took to wife *Edith*, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and, on the side of her mother Margaret, descended from the West-Saxon Kings. She assumed the Norman name of *Matilda*, and was by the people surnamed "the Good." The nobles were for the most part unfriendly to the King, and, relying on their support, Duke Robert invaded England to push his claim. The English held fast to Henry, and Anselm exerting his influence over the nobles, the dispute between the brothers was made up without bloodshed. After this, the King set himself to break the power of his barons, whom he effectually tamed for the remainder of his reign. His next object was to wrest Normandy from his brother ; and by the victory of *Tinchebrai* in 1106 he obtained possession both of the Dukedom and of Robert, whom he kept a prisoner until his death in 1134. The Ætheling Edgar, who, having followed Robert, was among the prisoners, was allowed to live unmolested in England.

3. **Archbishop Anselm.**—About the same time a dispute

between Henry and Anselm was brought to an end. The English Kings claimed that bishops and abbots should be nominated by them, and become their vassals like the lay barons. Everyone remembered how Rufus had abused this right, which was now contested by the Pope, and Anselm made a stand for the Church's liberties. In the end both sides gave way somewhat ; but that Henry should peaceably yield anything was in itself a victory. The Church was at this time the only check upon the will of rulers ; but men soon began to complain of the power of the Pope, which Anselm helped to strengthen, as in its turn an evil. Anselm died in 1109.

4. **Wales. The Flemish Settlement.**—The Conqueror had attempted to keep Wales in order by building castles on the *marches*, that is, frontiers, and giving them in charge to nobles of his—the Lords *Marchers*, as they were called—to whom he granted all the land they could conquer from the Welsh. Rufus and Henry followed the same plan ; and the latter also tried the effect of planting a colony of foreigners. He placed Flemish emigrants, a people at once brave and industrious, in the district of *Ross* in Pembrokeshire, where they grew rich by tilling the ground and manufacturing cloth, and held their own against all the efforts of the Welsh princes to turn them out.

5. **Succession of Matilda.**—Queen Matilda died in 1118, leaving two children,—*William*, and *Matilda* or *Maude*, married to the Emperor Henry V. In 1120 William, a youth of nineteen, was lost by shipwreck in the Channel. Though proud and dissolute, he yet sacrificed his life to his generosity. He had put off from the sinking ship in a boat, but the shrieks of his half-sister, the Countess of Perche, moved him to row back to the wreck, where his boat was sunk under the multitude of people who leapt in. As the King's second marriage with *Adelais of Louvain* proved

childless, he determined to settle the crown on his lately-widowed daughter Matilda. The barons were loth to consent, for it was not then the custom for women to rule ; but they were obliged to yield, and all swore to maintain Matilda's succession. Her father then married her, little to her liking, to *Geoffrey*, eldest son of the *Count of Anjou*, a lad of about fourteen.

6. **Death of Henry ; his Government.**—King Henry, the only one of the Conqueror's sons who was born in England, died in Normandy, Dec. 1st, 1135, in consequence, it is said, of a surfeit of lampreys. The reign of Henry was a time of misery ; his frequent wars caused England to be ground down under an unendurable taxation, while a succession of bad seasons added to the sufferings of the people. But they accounted Henry a good king, even though he was so little grateful for their support that he never would raise an Englishman to any office ; and they saw in him "the Lion of Justice" spoken of in the current prophecies attributed to the Welsh soothsayer Merlin. He improved the administration of justice, and granted charters to the towns. By severe punishment he put a stop to his followers' plundering, which had got to such a pitch that the people were wont to fly with their property to the woods as soon as they heard of their Sovereign's approach. Indeed his great merit was the rigorous justice he dealt out to thieves and robbers. Unfeeling and grasping as he was, he suffered no tyranny but his own ; and under him there was order, though not freedom.

CHAPTER XII.

STEPHEN.

Confusion after Henry's death (1)—election of Stephen of Blois (2)—battle of the Standard (3)—disorderly state of the country; war of Stephen and Matilda; settlement of the succession; death of Stephen (4).

1. **Stephen of Blois, 1135-1154.** Confusion after Henry's death.—As soon as Henry's iron hand was removed, the submission into which he had crushed his subjects ceased. He had guarded the forests with jealous tyranny; now everyone fell to hunting down the game, which was thus almost extirpated, insomuch that, according to report, a bird or a wild animal was a rare sight. But with his tyranny his good government came also to an end; and robbery, lawless violence, and private feuds broke out unchecked.

2. **Election of Stephen.**—*Stephen of Blois, Count of Boulogne*, and son of Henry's sister Adela, came forward as a candidate for the crown, regardless of his oath to his cousin *the Empress*, as Matilda was commonly called. His easy manners and readiness to laugh and talk with the common people had made him popular; the Londoners hailed him with joy, and he was elected King, and crowned at Westminster. The barons, who disliked Matilda, and still more her husband, easily reconciled their consciences to a similar breach of their oaths; and Stephen, having possessed himself of Henry's vast treasures, was able to buy support. He surrounded himself with foreign mercenaries (that is, soldiers who hired themselves out to any prince who would pay them), made large promises of

good government which he did not keep, and gave extravagant grants of Crown lands.

3. *Battle of the Standard.*—*David King of Scots*, Matilda's uncle, took up her cause, and made inroads upon England, once getting as far as Yorkshire. The wild Scots spread over the country, burning, desecrating, enslaving, and slaughtering, until Thurstan, the aged Archbishop of York, mustered the North-country barons and people against the invaders. "*The Battle of the Standard*," so called from the strange standard of the English, a mast with a silver casket on the top, containing a consecrated wafer, was fought near *Northallerton*, Aug. 22nd, 1138, and ended in the utter rout of the Scots.

4. *War of Stephen and Matilda.*—Meanwhile Stephen, whose power of purchasing support was exhausted, could no longer control the barons. The country was already in utter disorder. *Robert of Caen, Earl of Gloucester*, was Matilda's chief friend, and his partisans in Bristol robbed and plundered, seizing on men of wealth and carrying them off, blindfolded and gagged with sharp-toothed bits, to be starved and tortured for ransom. The highways were infested with thieves of gentle and peaceable appearance, who entered into courteous conversation with everyone until they could entrap some victim worth the seizing; and so common were these that at last a traveller would fly as soon as he espied a stranger on the road. The barons had been suffered to build themselves castles unchecked; and secure in these, which they garrisoned with savage ruffians, they were the worst robbers. Neither man nor woman who had any property was safe from them; they made the towns pay them taxes, and plundered and burned them when they could give no more. Even churches and churchyards were no longer respected by them. The land lay waste, for it was useless to cultivate it, and matters kept growing worse and worse till men bitterly exclaimed that

"Christ and His saints slept." The Empress landed in England in 1139, upon which civil war fairly broke out, carried on by both sides chiefly with mercenaries, while the barons fought and plundered on their own account. Early in 1141 Stephen was taken prisoner at Lincoln, and sent, loaded with chains, to Bristol Castle; while Matilda, acknowledged as *Lady of the English*, entered London, where her imperious conduct so irritated the citizens that they drove her out before she could be crowned. In the autumn Stephen was exchanged against the Earl of Gloucester, and the war being renewed, he besieged the Empress in Oxford Castle. The garrison being straitened for food, Matilda shortly before Christmas 1142 made her escape with great daring and ingenuity. The ground being covered with snow, she one night wrapped herself in a white cloak so as not to attract attention, and attended by three knights she passed through the posts of the enemy, crossing the river on the ice, and reached Wallingford Castle in safety. The struggle went on until in 1153 the bishops brought about a peace, by which Stephen, who had recently lost his eldest son Eustace, was to keep the kingdom for his life, and was to be succeeded by Matilda's eldest son, *Henry*. The next year, Oct. 25th, 1154, Stephen died. His wife, *Matilda of Boulogne*, who had valiantly supported him in his warfare, had died three years earlier.

CHAPTER XIII.

HENRY II.

Henry of Anjou (1)—*Thomas of London*; *Constitutions of Clarendon*; *flight, return, and murder of Thomas* (2)—*rebellion of Henry's sons*; *Henry's penance*; *capture of William the Lion* (3)

—further rebellions of Henry's sons; death of Henry; his government (4)—conquest of Ireland; Hadrian IV.; Strongbow and his comrades; Henry acknowledged by the native chieftains; condition of the country (5).

1. House of Anjou. Henry II., 1154-1189.—Even before he succeeded, at the age of twenty-one, to the English crown, *Henry* was a powerful prince. He was a vassal of the King of France, but had got so many fiefs into his hands that he was stronger than his lord and all the other Crown vassals put together. *Anjou* and *Maine* he had from his father, *Normandy* from his mother, and the *County of Poitou* and *Duchy of Aquitaine* he had gained by marrying their heiress *Eleanor* a few weeks after her divorce from *Louis VII.* of France. Energetic, hard-headed, and strong-willed, he was well fitted for the task of bringing England into order; and under the firm rule of a foreigner who had no national prejudices of his own, the distinction between Norman and Englishman faded away: By him the barons were again brought under authority, and all castles built without royal leave were razed. He had been well educated by the Earl of Gloucester, and took pleasure in the company of learned men; but his literary refinement had not taught him to curb his fierce temper, and in his fits of passion he behaved like a madman, striking and tearing at whatever came within reach. His private life was not creditable; his marriage, on his side one of policy, was unhappy, and the romantic legend told of his favourite "Fair Rosamund" conveys the popular notion of his wife's fierce nature.

2. The Constitutions of Clarendon.—In 1162 Henry procured the election of his intimate friend the Chancellor, *Thomas Becket*, to the archbishopric of Canterbury. Thomas was the son of a wealthy London citizen of Norman descent; and though an ecclesiastic, he busied himself wholly in secular matters. As soon however as

Thomas became Archbishop, he gave up his former pomp, led an austere life, and resigned the Chancellorship. Henry was offended, and the two were already at variance when they came to a downright quarrel on the subject of the church courts. The Conqueror had made the Bishops hold courts of their own for the trial of cases in which ecclesiastics were concerned. Henry now wished to bring the clergy under the criminal jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, and this Thomas strongly opposed ; but the King to a great extent carried his point by a series of resolutions, called "*the Constitutions of Clarendon*," because they were passed at that place, in a great council of prelates and barons, Jan. 1164. By these the clergy were brought much more under the royal authority. The Pope refused to give his approval to the Constitutions, and Henry spent his anger on the Archbishop, who fled to foreign parts. The quarrel, kept up for six years, was embittered in 1170 by a dispute about the coronation of the King's eldest son, whom he designed for his viceroy in England. No one but the Archbishop of Canterbury, so Thomas maintained, had a right to crown the King ; but Henry nevertheless got Roger, Archbishop of York, to perform the ceremony. Partly through fear of the Pope's anger, partly through the mediation of King Louis VII. of France, Henry soon afterwards consented to a reconciliation, and Thomas returned amid the rejoicing of the people. Haughty and unyielding as ever, he despatched before him letters from the Pope, Alexander III., suspending the Archbishop of York, and excommunicating two other prelates. Henry flew into one of his fits of passion : "What cowards have I brought up in my court !" he exclaimed ; "not one will deliver me from this low-born priest !" Four knights, taking him at his word, at once proceeded to Canterbury, and cut the Archbishop to pieces on the pavement of his own cathedral, Dec. 29th, 1170.

Henry, horror-struck at this result, cleared himself with the Pope by making oath that he had had no complicity in the murder, and by yielding some points to the Church.

3. *Henry's penance.*—Henry's life was clouded by quarrels with his sons. Besides *Henry*, "*the Younger King*," there was *Richard*, who had received the government of Aquitaine, and *Geoffrey*, to whom belonged the *Duchy of Brittany*, by his marriage with its heiress *Constance*. The King's ill-wishers—Louis of France, and his own neglected wife Eleanor—stirred up these boys to rebel against their father. In 1173 not only his sons, but also the Kings of France and Scotland, and many nobles of England and Normandy, leagued together against him. Thinking that these calamities were caused by the Divine wrath for the murder of *St. Thomas*, as the Archbishop was now styled, Henry did penance and let himself be scourged before the Saint's tomb. Soon he learnt that on the day on which he had left Canterbury, having completed his penance, the King of Scots, *William the Lion*, had been captured at Alnwick. The rebellion was soon at an end, and no one concerned met with hard usage except the King of Scots, who was constrained to enter into more complete and galling vassalage to England. By Henry's successor however he was permitted to buy back his freedom, England only retaining a vague claim to lordship over Scotland.

4. *Death of Henry.*—In 1183 Henry's sons were again at war with him and with each other. In June the Younger King, who was a mere tool of the discontented nobles, died, imploring his father's forgiveness. Geoffrey was pardoned, rebelled again, and died in 1186. Richard, after remaining faithful for some time, in 1188 sought the protection of *Philip Augustus* King of France, and proceeded to seize upon his father's foreign dominions. Henry, after a feeble resistance, submitted to the demands of his enemies.

He asked for a list of the barons who had joined the last confederacy against him, and the first name he heard was that of his youngest and favourite son *John*. Already stricken with fever, he sank under this cruel blow, and died at Chinon, July 6th, 1189. He is often called "*Plantagenet*," a surname borne by one of his ancestors—probably because his device was a sprig of *plante de genêt* or *broom*—and afterwards adopted by his descendants. Henry II. laid the foundations of good government in England, arranging the administration of justice, dividing the country into circuits, and taking pains to appoint faithful judges. Trusting the people better than the barons, he re-organized the militia, and every freeman was bound to provide himself with arms according to his position. In foreign warfare Henry usually employed soldiers hired with the produce of taxes, called *scutages*, levied on the feudal tenants in lieu of personal service.

5. **Conquest of Ireland.**—In the first year of his reign Henry had obtained authority to invade Ireland from Pope *Hadrian IV.*, or *Nicholas Brakespere*, noted as the only Englishman who has ever filled the Papal See. Nothing, however, was done till 1169, when *Dermot of Leinster*, a fugitive Irish King, had obtained Henry's permission to enlist adventurers in his service. A ruined nobleman, *Richard of Clare, Earl of Pembroke*, surnamed "*Strongbow*," and two Norman gentlemen from Wales, *Robert Fitz-Stephen* and *Maurice Fitz-Gerald*, accepted Dermot's offers, and, raising an army, carried everything before them in Ireland. On Dermot's death, Strongbow, who had married his daughter *Eva*, assumed the royal authority; but finding that Henry grew jealous, he thought it prudent to give up his conquests to him. Henry accordingly came over in 1171, his sovereignty was generally acknowledged, and four years later a treaty was made by which Roderick King of Connaught, the head King of Ireland, became his liegeman; but he could

not keep any hold over the country. Ireland, though supposed to be under English rule, remained for centuries in utter disorder, the battle-ground of Irish chiefs and Norman-descended lords, who became as savage and lawless as those whom they had conquered.

CHAPTER XIV.

RICHARD I.

Richard Cœur de Lion; the Crusade (1)—deposition of William Longchamp; treachery of the King's brother John (2)—Richard taken by Leopold of Austria; transferred to the Emperor; brought before the Diet; ransomed (3)—death of Richard; Bertrand de Gurdon; Berengaria of Navarre (4)—legendary reputation of Richard (5).

1. Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, or Lion-Heart, 1189-1199.—*Richard*, having spent his youth in Southern Gaul, then the school of music and poetry, had acquired its tastes, and had some skill in composing verses in its language. But his passion was for military glory, which his surpassing strength and valour well fitted him to win. Fierce and passionate, he yet was not without generous impulses; and after the fashion of a Crusader, he was zealous for religion. For the English he cared little, except as they supplied him with men and money, and during his whole reign he was only twice in the country, for a few months at a time. After his coronation, Richard at once made ready for a Crusade in company with his friend Philip Augustus of France. To raise money, he sold earldoms, Crown lands, offices of State. "I would sell London if I could find a buyer," he said. At Midsummer 1190, Richard and Philip set out together for the Holy Land; but before they got

there, their friendship had cooled. Jealousies and quarrels ruined the Crusade ; Philip soon went home to lay plans for possessing himself of Richard's continental dominions ; the other crusading princes were disgusted with Richard's arrogance, and he with their lack of zeal. After many brilliant exploits, the King, weakened by fever, ended by making a truce with the Sultan *Saladin*. His ill success had been great grief to him. The Crusaders had not ventured to attack Jerusalem, the object of their enterprise ; and when—so runs the tale—Richard had come within sight of it, he had covered his eyes with his garment, praying God with tears not to let him look upon the Holy City, since he could not deliver it.

2. **Deposition of the Chancellor Longchamp.**—During this reign, England was really ruled by the King's Justiciars. Of these, the Chancellor *William Longchamp*, *Bishop of Ely*, a Frenchman, was a faithful servant to Richard, but unpopular with the nobles, and filled with a scornful dislike of the English. He was before long deposed from his office by a meeting of earls, barons, and London citizens ; a new Justiciar was appointed, and the King's brother John declared Regent and heir to the Crown. John soon began to plot mischief with Philip of France against his absent brother, who set out home in Oct. 1192. The next news of him was that he was a prisoner in *Austria*, and John, declaring that he was dead, laid claim to the Crown.

3. **Captivity of Richard.**—The King, while travelling homewards through *Austria*, had been seized by *Leopold*, Duke of that country, who had been insulted by Richard during the Crusade. The Duke sold his captive to the *Emperor Henry VI.*, who kept him closely guarded, and at one time, it is said, loaded with fetters. He was brought before a meeting of princes of the Empire, on various accusations, among them, that of having procured the assassination of

a fellow Crusader, Conrad Marquis of Montferrat; and although he cleared himself, the Emperor still insisted on so heavy a ransom that to raise it every Englishman had to give a fourth of his income; the very church plate was sold or pawned. After more than a year's captivity, Richard was freed, in Feb. 1194. "Take care of yourself, for the devil is let loose," so Philip wrote to John, when he heard of the ransom being fixed; but Richard inflicted on the brother who had tried to bribe the Emperor to detain him in prison, no punishment beyond depriving him of his lands and castles.

4. *Death of Richard.*—In April, 1199, the King perished in a petty quarrel with the *Viscount of Limoges*, one of his foreign barons, about a treasure which had been discovered on the estate of the latter. While besieging the Viscount's castle of *Chalus*, Richard was wounded in the shoulder by an arrow. The castle being stormed and taken, the King ordered all the garrison to be at once hanged, reserving only *Bertrand de Gurdon*, the crossbowman who had given him his death-wound. Finding his end drawing near, Richard had Bertrand brought before him. "What harm have I done to you, that you have killed me?" The young archer, answering that his father and two brothers had fallen by Richard's hand, bade the King take what revenge he would. "I forgive you my death," said Richard, and he ordered his release. Nevertheless after the King's death, Marchadee, the leader of his mercenaries, had the archer barbarously executed.

Richard early in his reign married *Berengaria of Navarre*, but had no children.

5. *Legendary reputation of Richard.*—Legends soon gathered round the striking figure of Cœur de Lion, and he became a hero of romance. His surname probably suggested the tale of his having while in prison torn out with his hands

the heart of a lion sent to slay him ; another and a more touching story of his captivity tells how his faithful minstrel Blondel wandered seeking him, and discovered him by means of a song. Little as he had done for England, he came to be looked on as a national hero ; while among the Mohammedans, his prowess was remembered in common phrases. "Hush ye, here is King Richard !" the mother would say to her crying child ; and the Arab horseman would exclaim to his starting horse, "Dost think it is King Richard ?"

CHAPTER XV.

JOHN.

Election of John ; Arthur of Brittany ; forfeiture of the French possessions (1)—quarrel between John and the Pope ; sentence of deposition ; John becomes a vassal and tributary of Rome (2)—"The Army of God and His Holy Church ;" Magna Carta or the Great Charter (3)—war between John and the Barons ; the crown offered to Louis of France (4)—John's death ; his children (5).

1. John, surnamed *Sansterre* or *Lackland* (a name given to younger sons whose fathers died before they were of age to hold fiefs), 1199-1216.—In England *John* was chosen King ; but in Richard's foreign dominions there was a party which desired for their Duke young *Arthur of Brittany*, son of John's elder brother *Geoffrey* ; and Philip of France, for his own purposes, took up the lad's cause. A victory before *Mirabeau* in Poitou threw into John's power *Arthur*, together with many of his partisans, some of whom were starved to death in prison. It was believed that the King ordered his nephew's eyes to be put out, but that the youth's keeper, *Hubert de*

Burgh, would not carry out the sentence. However this may have been, Arthur disappeared after a few months' captivity, and rumour accused his uncle of having stabbed him with his own hand. John was summoned by Philip to clear himself before the French peers, and on non-appearance he was adjudged to have forfeited his fiefs. Philip speedily made himself master of Normandy and John's other possessions in Northern Gaul; but the Duchy of *Aquitaine*, and the *Channel Islands*, fragments of the Norman Duchy, were left to the English King. To our country these losses proved a gain. Our sovereigns then became Englishmen, instead of being merely French princes holding England.

2. *The Interdict.*—In 1205 John embroiled himself with Pope *Innocent III.*, the dispute arising on the question whether the monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, or the bishops of the province, had the right of electing the Archbishop. The Pope declared for the monks, who on his recommendation elected *Stephen Langton*, an Englishman then in Rome. As the King refused to recognize this election, Innocent laid the kingdom under an *interdict*. That is, the churches were closed, and the Sacraments no longer administered, except to infants and the dying; marriages took place only in the church porch; and the dead were buried silently and in unconsecrated ground. But as John would not give way, Innocent in 1212 declared his vassals absolved from their allegiance, and called on all Christian princes and barons to aid in dethroning him. Under this sentence, which Philip was preparing to carry out, John's courage failed him. The harsh enforcement of the Forest laws, his oppressive taxes, above all, his intolerable cruelty and licentiousness, had set high and low against him, and he could not count upon the support of his subjects. One *Peter*, a hermit of Yorkshire, foretold that when the next Ascension-day should be passed John would

have ceased to reign ; and in superstitious terror, the King not only admitted Langton to the Archbishopric, but also by charter granted to the Pope the Kingdoms of England and Ireland to be henceforth held by John and his heirs by a yearly rent. On the 15th May, 1213, in the Templars' Church near Dover, he made his submission, and swore fealty to Innocent. In a few days the Feast of the Ascension passed, and John had the hermit hanged for a false prophet. But people murmured that Peter had spoken true ; John was no longer a sovereign, but a vassal.

3. *Magna Carta*.—The Barons were now resolved to put a check upon John's tyranny ; and, in spite of his friendship with Rome, Archbishop Langton and the English Church made common cause with them. In the autumn of 1214 the confederates took an oath upon the altar at *St. Edmundsbury* to withdraw their allegiance, if John should refuse their demands. In his passion the King swore that he would never grant them liberties which would make him a slave ; but when the confederates—"the Army of God and His Holy Church"—marched under *Robert Fitz-Walter* upon London, and were willingly admitted, he was brought to submit. At *Runnymede*, a meadow near Windsor, on June 15th, 1215, the King met the Barons, and signed the Charter which embodied their demands. Thus was won *Magna Carta*, the *Great Charter*, held sacred to this day as the foundation of our liberties. Yet it was no new law, but rather a correction of abuses. The first clause secured the liberties of the Church ; others were devoted to removing the grievances of the Barons as tenants of the Crown. Of these an important one was that no *scutage* or *aid* (assistance in money from a vassal to his lord) should be levied without the consent of the King's tenants in council assembled, except on three specified occasions. But, to their honour, these patriot

nobles did not take thought for themselves only. The Charter provided that the rights they claimed should be extended by them to their own tenants. The "liberties and free customs" of London and other towns were secured. Protection was given against oppressions arising from process for debts or services due to the Crown; against excessive fines; and the abuses of the prerogative of *purveyance* and *pre-emption*—that is, the right claimed by the Crown of buying provisions at its own valuation, and of impressing carriage for its service. The King should no longer make money out of the proceedings in courts of law: "To no man will we sell," so runs the clause, "to no man will we deny, or delay, right or justice." Trade was encouraged by the promise that merchants should safely enter, leave, and pass through England without exactions. Above all, the liberty of the subject was secured. "No freeman" was to be "taken, or imprisoned, or disseized [deprived of his land], or outlawed, or banished, or in any way damaged, . . . except by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." Some provision was made against the oppression even of the villain.

4. War between John and the Barons.—Though John sealed the Charter with a cheerful air, he burst into a rage after the assembly had broken up, and began to devise means of revenge. He implored the aid of his lord the Pope, who thereupon annulled the Charter, that is, declared it to be of none effect; telling the Barons that if they would submit, he would see that they were not oppressed. But rebuke, excommunication, the laying of London under an interdict, all failed to daunt the Barons, who are said to have applied to the Pope the words of Isaiah, "Woe unto them which justify the wicked for reward!" Langton would not pronounce the excommunication, and was in consequence suspended by Innocent from the exercise

of his functions as Archbishop. John had more potent weapons in store. Mercenary soldiers—savage freebooters trained to slaughter and spoil—were brought from the Continent to overrun England; and with these he marched into Scotland, devastating as he went, in order to punish the northern barons and their ally, young *Alexander II. King of Scots*. Every morning he fired with his own hands the house in which he had rested during the night. At last the Barons took the desperate step of offering the crown to *Louis*, eldest son of Philip of France. Louis accordingly came over with a French army, and at first was well supported. But when the Barons found the foreign prince granting lands to his own countrymen, they grew suspicious of him, and some of them went over to John.

5. Death of John.—While attempting to cross with his army the Wash of Lincolnshire, John's supplies and treasures were all swallowed by the rising tide. Vexation, coupled with a surfeit of peaches and ale—or, according to a later tradition, poison administered by a monk—threw him into a fever, of which he died at Newark, Oct. 18th, 1216, leaving an evil name behind him. By his second wife, *Isabel of Angoulême*, he had two sons—*Henry*, who succeeded him, and *Richard Earl of Cornwall*, who was elected, by a party in Germany, *King of the Romans*.

CHAPTER XVI.

HENRY III.

Henry of Winchester; departure of Louis (1)—marriage of Henry; the favourites; his character; the Londoners (2)—the Provisions of Oxford (3)—the Barons' War (4)—Earl Simon's Parliament (5)

—battle of Evesham and death of Simon ; the Disinherited (6)—death of Henry (7)—Magna Carta ; (8)—Gothic architecture (9).

1. **Henry III. of Winchester, 1216-1272.**—Ten days after John's death, the Royalists crowned at Gloucester his eldest son *Henry*, then only nine years old. A plain circle of gold was placed on the child's head, for the crown had been lost with the rest of the royal treasures. *William Earl of Pembroke*, a wise and good statesman, was made the young King's guardian. Many barons now left the French for the royal standard ; and two battles put an end to the hopes of Louis. The first, fought in May 1217, in the streets of Lincoln, between the Earl of Pembroke and the French Count of Perche, was jestingly termed by the victorious Royalists "*the Fair of Lincoln*." The second was a sea-fight between the Justiciar *Hubert de Burgh*, and a noted pirate, Eustace the Monk, who was bringing a French fleet to the relief of Louis. Hubert, who held Dover Castle, could get together only forty sail, and his case seemed so desperate that several knights would not accompany him. But his courage was rewarded, for the English, fearlessly boarding the enemy's ships and cutting the rigging, gained an easy victory. After this Louis was glad to make peace and go home. *Alexander King of Scots* and the North-Welsh prince *Llywelyn* both acknowledged the young Sovereign, who now reigned undisputed.

2. **Character of Henry.**—At the age of twenty-nine, Henry married *Eleanor*, daughter of Count Raymond of Provence. She was beautiful and accomplished, but was greatly disliked on account of the favours lavished on her kindred. Henry himself preferred foreigners to his own countrymen, and this gave constant offence. Insolent and masterful in their prosperity, the favourites met every complaint of the English with the reply, "We have nothing to do with the law of the land." Though the King had no positive vices, he was weak,

vain, and ostentatiously liberal, and consequently always poor and greedy for money. On the birth of his first son *Edward* he sought after gifts with such eagerness, that a Norman said, "Heaven gave us this child, but the King sells him to us." The rich London citizens complained of the heavy *tallages* laid upon them. "Those ill-bred Londoners," as Henry once called them, were no friends of the Court, and their mutual dislike often broke out. One day the young men of the City were playing at the *quintain*, a game which exercised the man-at-arms in managing his horse and lance, when some of the royal attendants and pages insulted the citizens, calling them "scurvy clowns and soap-makers," and entered the lists to oppose them. The young Londoners had the satisfaction of beating their courtly antagonists "black and blue," but the City paid for it in a heavy fine imposed by the King.

3. **The Provisions of Oxford.**—The Popes claimed the right to tax the clergy, upon whom they made almost yearly demands, which were complained of as much as the royal exactions. They were further answerable for leading Henry into his most signal act of folly, by offering to his second son *Edmund* the crown of *Sicily*, or rather the empty title, for the actual kingdom could only be gained by war, the expenses of which Henry pledged England to repay. Aghast at finding how enormous was the sum to which they were committed, the Barons compelled Henry to agree that twenty-four persons should be chosen, half by him, half by themselves, to reform the government. These twenty-four drew up "*the Provisions of Oxford*," under which the royal authority was in fact placed in the hands of a council. But this government did not long work smoothly. They quarrelled among themselves, and Henry took advantage of this to try to get back his authority.

4. **The Barons' War.**—This ended in a war between the

King and the Barons, the latter being headed by the most able man of their party, *Simon of Montfort*, a Frenchman who had become *Earl of Leicester* in right of his mother, had married the King's sister Eleanor, and had made himself a thorough Englishman. The Londoners sided with the Barons, and showed their dislike of the royal family in a manner which did them no credit. On the first breaking out of war, the Queen attempted to pass by water from the Tower to Windsor Castle; but as soon as her barge approached the bridge, the Londoners assailed her with abuse, threw down mud upon her, and by preparing to sink her boat forced her to return. The battle of *Lewes*, May 14, 1264, put an end for the time to the war. The action was begun by the King's eldest son Edward, who charged the Londoners in the baronial army with such vigour as to send them flying in utter rout; but his eagerness to avenge his mother led him to chase them four miles, and while he was slaughtering fugitives, his own friends were defeated by Simon. Henry, whose brother the King of the Romans was also captured, surrendered, and a treaty, the "*Mise of Lewes*," was concluded, under which his son was given as a hostage to the conquerors. Though orders and writs continued to run in the royal name, and the King was treated with respect, he became no better than a prisoner to Earl Simon. In vain the Papal legate, Guy Foulquois, threatened the Barons with excommunication: as soon as the Bull containing the sentence arrived, the Dover men threw it into the sea.

5. *Earl Simon's Parliament.*—The most famous act of Earl Simon during his rule was the bringing of the Great Council of the Realm, already called by the French name of *Parliament*, into its present form. Its materials indeed he found ready to his hand. The greater barons, the *Lords* or *Peers*, came, as they still do, in person; and as the smaller tenants of the Crown or freeholders were too

numerous to do likewise, a few of their number had occasionally been summoned to act in their name—so many knights from each county. This was the origin of our county members, who still are called *Knights of the Shire*. The regular and continuous attendance of these knights began with Earl Simon; but a House of knights alone would have been a poor representation of the whole people. Simon brought the towns also into the national assembly, making not only each county send two knights, but each *city* and *borough* send two of their *citizens* or *burgesses*. Thus was formed our *House of Commons*.

6. Battle of Evesham.—Earl Simon "*the Righteous*," as he was now called, did not keep his power much longer. His sons gave offence by their haughtiness and ill-conduct, and one of the foremost of the Barons, *Gilbert of Clare, Earl of Gloucester*, entered into league with the Royalists. Hoping to bring about Edward's escape, his friends sent him a fleet horse, upon which, having craftily got leave from Simon for a race or trial of horses, he galloped away from his escort, bidding them farewell with sarcastic courtesy. Fortune now turned against the Earl of Leicester, whose last hope was destroyed by his son Simon allowing himself to be surprised by Edward and his army at *Kenilworth*. Edward then advanced against the elder Simon at *Evesham*, Aug. 4, 1265, and, by displaying in his van the banners he had won at *Kenilworth*, deluded the Barons into taking the approaching force for friends. When the Royalist ensigns at length appeared, Simon exclaimed, "May God have mercy on our souls, for our bodies are theirs." King Henry, being forced to appear in the baronial ranks, ran no small risk, until the fall of his helmet revealed him to the two zealous friends who were attacking. Earl Simon, old as he was, fought valiantly till he was overpowered by numbers. His body was brutally mangled by the Royalists, but some relics of the corpse

were buried by the friendly monks of Evesham; and the clergy and people in general honoured him as a martyr. This victory restored Henry to power, although "*the Disinherited*"—that is, Simon's adherents and their sons, whose estates were all confiscated—kept up a fierce plundering warfare for two years longer. After a time they were allowed to redeem their estates, but the Montfort family and the Londoners were denied this advantage. Among the last to yield was Llywelyn, whose submission was soothed by the title of *Prince of Wales*.

7. **Death of Henry.**—The land being now at peace, Edward and Edmund set off upon what proved to be the last Crusade; and during their absence King Henry died, Nov. 16, 1272. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he had begun to rebuild; and ere his sepulchre was covered, the Earl of Gloucester, laying his hand on the corpse, swore fealty to the absent Edward, who was at once proclaimed King.

8. **Magna Carta.**—The Great Charter, with the omission of the provision against arbitrary levying of scutage and aid, and some other alterations, was thrice re-issued in this reign: first, on the accession of Henry; secondly, after the departure of Louis, when a *Charter of the Forest* was added, which declared that no man should lose life or limb for taking the King's game; thirdly, in 1225, being the condition upon which Henry obtained a grant of money from the national council. In this last form it was afterwards confirmed more than thirty times. The proverbial phrase, *Nolumus leges Angliæ mutare*, (We will not change the laws of England,) dates from this reign, it having been the answer of the earls and barons in council at Merton in 1236, when urged by the Bishops to bring the laws of inheritance into accordance with the rule of the Church.

9. **Gothic Architecture.**—In the last years of the twelfth century arose the Pointed or *Gothic* style of architecture,

which flourished until the revival of the classic orders in the sixteenth century. When it had gone out of fashion, and its beauties were not appreciated, the name of *Gothic*, which had the sense of *barbarous*, was fixed upon it in scorn. It is also called *pointed*, because its leading feature is the pointed arch. Salisbury Cathedral is a good specimen of early Gothic; and the Eleanor Crosses, and the nave of York Minster, of that which prevailed under the first three Edwards. The naves of Winchester and Canterbury Cathedrals represent the form intermediate between York nave and the latest Gothic, of which the chapels of St. George at Windsor and of Henry VII. at Westminster are examples.

CHAPTER XVII.

EDWARD I.

Edward I.; attempt to assassinate him; his character (1)—war with Prince Llywelyn; death of Llywelyn and of David; Wales united to England; creation of the Prince of Wales (2)—competitors for the Scottish crown; decision of Edward; conquest of Scotland; abdication of Balliol; stone of Scone (3)—William Wallace; second conquest of Scotland; murder of Comyn; Bruce crowned King of Scots; death of Edward (4)—family of Edward (5)—legislation; parliaments; Confirmation of the Charters; parliamentary taxation (6)—expulsion of the Jews (7).

1. Edward, First from the Norman Conquest, surnamed Longshanks, 1272-1307.—*Edward*, the first of our princes after the Norman Conquest who was an Englishman at heart, was strong and tall, towering by head and shoulders above the crowd, a good horseman, a keen hunter, and noted for his skill in knightly exercises. His credit as a Crusader

was heightened by his having narrowly escaped with his life from the poisoned dagger of a Mohammedan assassin. The touching story that his wife, *Eleanor of Castile*, at her own peril sucked the venom from his wound, is but a romance ; for in truth Edward's fortitude was put to the test of having the poisoned flesh cut out. Besides being a gallant knight, he was a great statesman and ruler. Loving power, he was loth to give it up, but he knew when to yield ; and the chief fault with which he could be charged was a disposition to rely too much on the letter of the law.

2. Conquest of Wales.—Early in his reign Edward had trouble with his vassal Llywelyn Prince of Wales, who, persistently evading the swearing of fealty, was at length declared a rebel, and was soon brought by force to submit. For some years Edward enjoyed his supremacy, though both prince and people longed to shake off the yoke. Resistance was first made by the very man from whom Edward could least have expected it, *Dafydd* or *David*, who had fought on the English side against his brother Llywelyn, and owed everything to Edward's bounty. He raised in 1282 a formidable insurrection ; but after Llywelyn had fallen in a chance encounter with an English knight, the Welsh chieftains yielded, and David, being delivered up by his own countrymen, was executed, Sept. 20, 1283. Llywelyn's head, encircled with a wreath, was set over the Tower, in mockery of a prophecy that the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London. Wales was now united to England, and Edward did his best to conciliate his unwilling subjects. His son *Edward* was born April 25, 1284, in the castle of Caernarvon, and seventeen years later was created *Prince of Wales*, a title which has ever since been conferred on the Sovereign's eldest son. There is a legend that the King promised to give the Welsh a native prince who could not speak a word of English, and that he then presented to them his

infant son. Another story, that the King, finding that the native *bards* or poets kept alive the memories of the ancient glories of Wales, had them all massacred, is a fiction ; but it is worth recording for the sake of the splendid ode by Gray.

3. **Conquest of Scotland.**—The *Scots*, under which name were now included both the Gaelic-speaking men of the Highlands and the English-speaking men of the Lowlands, were without a King ; the last of their old Celtic line of princes was dead, and there was a crowd of claimants to the throne. Of these the foremost were *John Balliol* and *Robert Bruce*, noblemen of Norman descent, holding lands both in England and Scotland. The English King was called in to decide, and met the Scottish Estates at Norham, May 10, 1291. He began by demanding their acknowledgment of him as their feudal superior, and gave judgment in favour of Balliol, whose fealty and homage he received. But the new King and his barons, disliking their position as vassals, soon allied themselves with France, and went to war with England. In this they were worsted ; and Balliol being compelled to give up the crown in 1296, Edward took possession of Scotland as a forfeit fief, received the homage of the Scottish parliament, and filled the highest offices in the country with Englishmen. He carried away the Scottish regalia, and with them a relic whose loss was deeply felt. At *Scone* there was a fragment of rock on which the Scots King was wont to be placed at his coronation. It had been, so legend said, the pillow of Jacob at Bethel ; and where that fated stone was, there the Scots should reign. The conqueror placed it, enclosed in a throne, in Westminster Abbey, where the stone and chair still remain, and upon them every King of England has since been crowned.

4. **Wallace and Bruce.**—Edward was not a harsh conqueror, but English domination in any shape was hateful to

the people of the Lowlands. *William Wallace*, who had made himself a name as the chief of a body of patriotic outlaws, defeated near Stirling John Earl of Warrenne and Surrey, who governed Scotland for Edward; and after having ravaged Northumberland and Cumberland, he was made or made himself ruler of Scotland under the title of *Guardian of the Kingdom*. His fall was as rapid as his rise. Edward routed the insurgents at Falkirk, July 22, 1298, and Wallace sank back into his outlaw's life. The Scottish nobles kept up the war some years longer, but were again obliged to yield. Wallace disdained to avail himself of the mercy then offered him, and being captured, was brought to London and hanged at Tyburn, Aug. 24, 1305, winning by his death his place as the national hero of Scotland. What he had failed to achieve was brought about by *Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick*, grandson of that Bruce who had claimed the throne. Early in 1306, this young Bruce, in a church at Dumfries, stabbed *John Comyn of Badenoch*, who was the representative of the rival house of Balliol. Then summoning the Scots to his standard, he was crowned King at Scone. Edward's deepest anger was roused by this sacrilegious murder, which he solemnly vowed to avenge. Being in feeble health, he could only move northwards by easy stages, but he sent in advance his son, young Edward, who began so ruthlessly to waste the Scottish country that his father had to check his cruelty. Bruce, with his followers, was hunted about from place to place, but he gained some small success, sufficient to irritate Edward, who thereupon advanced from Carlisle as soon as he felt his health would permit. But the mere exertion of mounting his horse proved almost too much for him, and in the next four days he could only move six miles, reaching *Burgh-on-the-Sands*, where, within sight of Scotland, he died July 7, 1307.

5. **Family of Edward.**—Edward's first and dearly loved wife, *Eleanor*, died in 1290, in Lincolnshire, and wherever her corpse rested on its way to Westminster a cross was raised to her memory. Of Eleanor's four sons, three died in childhood ; the youngest, *Edward*, succeeded his father. The King's second wife was *Margaret*, sister of *Philip IV.*, the *Fair*, of France. Her sons were *Thomas of Brotherton*, *Earl of Norfolk*, and *Edmund of Woodstock*, *Earl of Kent*.

6. **Legislation.**—Notwithstanding that Simon of Montfort had been Edward's foe, his system of representation became in the course of this reign firmly established ; and although changes have frequently been made in the details, the form of government, by *King*, *Lords*, and *Commons*, has, with one short break, been the same ever since. Edward and his parliaments made a number of useful laws ; but the chief reform of the reign was won much against the King's will and almost by force. *Roger Bigod*, *Earl of Norfolk*, and *Humfrey Bohun*, *Earl of Hereford*, made a determined stand against the King's levying money and provisions on his sole authority, and obtained from him the *Confirmation of the Charters*, with the important addition that he should not impose taxes without "the common assent of the realm."

7. **Expulsion of the Jews.**—The *Jews* were hateful to the people, both because they were not Christians, and because they were usurers. They alone could lend money on interest, for the Scriptures were thought to forbid that practice to Christians, and thereby they made enormous profits. They were accused of horrible crimes, and were often subjected to great cruelties by the fierce and ignorant people among whom they lived ; but hated as they were, they yet grew rich under the protection of the Sovereign, whose slaves and chattels the law accounted them. As he could tax them at his pleasure, it was his interest to protect them

and to give every encouragement to their trade. But at last, in 1290, Edward, being unable to withstand the popular feeling against them, after a vain attempt to convert them to Christianity, ordered them all, on pain of death, to quit the kingdom, allowing them however to carry away their money and goods. Harsh as this order was, it is fair to Edward to consider that by it he sacrificed a source of revenue to the wishes of his people.

CHAPTER XVIII.

EDWARD II.

Edward's last charge to his son ; Piers Gaveston (1)—marriage and coronation of Edward II. ; general enmity against Piers ; the Ordainers ; death of Piers (2)—battle of Bannockburn (3)—the Scots in Ireland (4)—the Despencers ; execution of the Earl of Lancaster (5)—invasion of Isabel and Mortimer ; execution of the Despencers ; deposition of Edward (6)—murder of Edward (7)—suppression of the Knights Templars (8).

1. Edward II. of Caernarvon, 1307-1327.—The young King already had a favourite, *Piers* or *Peter of Gaveston*, son of a Gascon gentleman. Edward I. had chosen him to be his son's companion in boyhood—a choice he had cause to rue—for Piers led the Prince of Wales into wild and lawless courses, which the elder Edward tried in vain to restrain. Once indeed the old King sent his son to prison for breaking the park and destroying the deer of *Walter of Langton, Bishop of Lichfield*; and some months before his death Piers was banished. Among the injunctions laid upon his son by the dying Edward, one was that he should never recall Gaveston without consent of Parliament; another was that he should

go on with the Scottish war. But his commands were set at naught. The new King soon gave up the Scottish expedition and hastened to recall Piers, whom he loaded with riches and honours, and left as Regent during his own absence in France for his marriage.

2. **General Enmity against Gaveston.**—At Boulogne, early in 1308, the King married *Isabel*, daughter of Philip the Fair of France. On his return he was met by the Regent and the English barons. The disgust of these latter was great when they saw the King, without noticing anyone else, throw himself into his favourite's arms and call him brother. When at the coronation the place of honour was given to Piers, the irritation was increased, and three days later the Barons demanded his banishment. Edward, reluctantly yielding, appointed Piers to the government of Ireland, where he seems to have shown courage and ability. By assenting to a petition of the Commons for redress of grievances, the King obtained in return, not only a supply of money, but also their consent that Piers, whom he had again recalled, might remain with him, "provided he should demean himself properly." Piers however was far from demeaning himself properly in the eyes of the nobles. When he was at court nothing went on but dancing, feasting, and merry-making; and their feelings were further embittered by the contemptuous nicknames he bestowed. Discontent again showed itself, and in 1310 Edward was obliged to give up the government for a year to a committee of peers. "*The Ordainers*," as they were called, drew up articles of reform, lessening the power of the Crown, and again banishing Piers. Edward, after complaining and entreating in vain, parted in tears with his favourite. But not a year had passed before Piers rejoined the King, upon which the Barons took up arms under *Thomas Earl of Lancaster*, cousin to the King, and besieging Piers in Scarborough Castle obliged him to sur-

render. His death being determined on, he was beheaded on *Blacklow Hill*, near Warwick, June 19, 1312.

3. **Battle of Bannockburn.**—While Edward was wrangling with his Barons, Scotland was lost, the fortresses there falling one by one into the hands of Bruce. At last, in 1314, Edward, with a splendid army, set out to save *Stirling Castle*, whose governor had agreed to surrender if not relieved before the Feast of St. John the Baptist. Almost the same story is told of this battle as of Hastings. The English, it is said, spent the vigil in revelry, shouting their old drinking cries of "Wassaille" and "Drink haile;" the Scots kept it fasting. The battle took place on the morrow, June 24, at *Bannockburn*, where the English were completely routed by Bruce's small force, Edward flying with a party of Scottish horse at his heels, and all his treasures and supplies falling into the hands of the victors.

4. **The Scots in Ireland.**—Ireland was torn asunder between the English settlers and the native *septs* or clans, who were for ever making war upon each other and among themselves. *O'Neill* and other chiefs of Ulster, joined by the Lacys, a Norman-English family, now offered the Irish crown to *Edward Bruce*, brother of Robert. Edward came over with an army to Ulster in 1315; and there gaining, together with his Irish allies, some victories, was crowned King at Carrickfergus. But the Irish hopes were broken by the defeat of *Athenree*, Aug. 10, 1316; and two years later, Bruce fell in battle near Dundalk.

5. **The Despensers.**—After a time, the King found a new favourite, *Sir Hugh le Despenser*, upon whom he bestowed large estates. Both he and his father were soon as much a cause of strife as Piers had been, and the Barons again rebelled; but the chief enemies of the Despensers, the Earls of Hereford and of Lancaster, were defeated at Boroughbridge, the former falling in the fight, and the latter being taken

there, and afterwards beheaded at Pontefract. Another leading man of the baronial party, *Roger of Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore*, was also condemned to death, but the sentence was changed to imprisonment.

6. Deposition of Edward.—On divers pretexts *Charles IV.*, King of France, quarrelled with Edward, who, having been persuaded that his wife would have influence with her brother, sent her in 1325 to France to negotiate for him, and allowed his young son, *Edward Prince of Wales*, to join her. Months passed without either mother or son returning, Isabel professing to have fears of Hugh Despenser. At last, Sept. 24, 1326, she landed in Suffolk, but it was at the head of foreign soldiers and a number of exiles, among them Roger Mortimer, who had escaped from the Tower. So unpopular were the Despensers that the Queen was hailed as a deliverer; while the King, after vainly appealing to the loyalty of the Londoners, fled to the Welsh marches. The elder Despenser, who commanded at Bristol, was soon forced to surrender to Isabel, and, though an old man of ninety, was barbarously executed. Edward was captured in Glamorganshire, together with the younger Despenser, who, crowned with nettles, was hanged fifty feet high at Hereford. The King being carried prisoner to Kenilworth, Parliament resolved that he was unworthy to reign, and that his eldest son should be King in his stead. The crowd that filled Westminster Hall shouted assent; but Isabel feigned violent grief, and the Prince, touched by her seeming sorrow, vowed that he would never take the crown against his father's will. A resignation was therefore obtained from Edward, who yielded with tears; and the ceremony was closed by the steward of the household, *Sir Thomas Blount*, breaking his staff of office and declaring all persons in the royal service discharged, as was done at a King's death.

7. **Murder of Edward.**—From Edward's deposition to his death was but a step. He was made over to the keeping of *Sir John de Maltravers*, who, to conceal his abode, moved him from castle to castle, and by insults and ill-usage strove to destroy his reason or his life. Finally he was placed in *Berkeley Castle*, where he was cruelly and secretly murdered, a deed which Mortimer afterwards confessed to have commanded.

8. **Suppression of the Templars.**—It was in the time of this King that Pope *Clement V.* suppressed throughout Europe the wealthy *Order of the Knights Templars*, soldier-monks who had done great service in the Holy Wars. The order therefore came to an end in England as elsewhere, and all its property was confiscated. Its London abode in Fleet Street, the *Temple*, afterwards passed into the hands of two societies of lawyers, the *Inner* and *Middle Temple*, to whom it still belongs.

CHAPTER XIX.

EDWARD III.

Edward III.; Mortimer and the Queen; treaty with Scotland; fall of Mortimer (1)—*claim upon the French crown; the Hundred Years' War; battles of Sluys and Crécy; taking of Calais; battle of Neville's Cross* (2)—*the Black Death* (3)—*battle of Poitiers* (4)—*Peace of Bretigny* (5)—*the Spanish expedition; disaffection of Aquitaine; losses of the English* (6)—*the Good Parliament; death of the Black Prince* (7)—*death of Edward* (8)—*legislation* (9)—*commerce* (10)—*John Wycliffe* (11).

1. **Edward III. of Windsor, 1327-1377.**—As the new King was only fourteen, guardians were appointed to carry

on the government ; but the Queen and Mortimer contrived to get all power into their own hands. A treaty was made by them with Scotland, March 17, 1328, by which they were thought to have sacrificed the young King's rights, as they gave up the claim to feudal superiority. Mortimer, though hated by the nobles, believed himself to be secure, and so absurdly insolent was his conduct, that his own son called him "the King of Folly." But he had not reckoned upon an outburst of spirit on the part of *Edward*, who was now eighteen. The governor of Nottingham Castle, where Mortimer was staying, let in, through an underground passage, a party of Edward's friends, who, headed by the King, burst at midnight into the favourite's chamber, and, regardless of the entreaties of Isabel, made him prisoner. The King, now his own master, called a parliament, and Mortimer, being condemned by the peers, was hanged at Tyburn, Nov. 29, 1330. Isabel passed the rest of her life in ward at Castle Rising.

2. **The Hundred Years' War.**—On the death in 1328 of Charles IV., Edward had put in a claim to the crown of France in right of his mother, but the French maintained that no right could pass through women, who by a custom supposed to be founded on the ancient "*Salic Law*" were shut out from the throne. Nothing however came of this claim until the actual King, *Philip of Valois*, by encroaching in Aquitaine, and by supporting the Scots in their hostilities, roused Edward into setting it up again, and entering upon the "*Hundred Years' War*," so called because though there was not constant fighting, there was no lasting peace during all that time. Edward at first formed foreign alliances, especially with the Flemish cities, but afterwards made war alone. His first great victory was a sea-fight off Sluys, June 24, 1340, and after six years more of alternate war and truce, he gained the famous battle of *Crécy*, Aug. 26, 1346. The

French far outnumbered the English, but they were undisciplined and ill led, and their Genoese crossbowmen gave way before the terrible volleys of the English archers. Still there was sharp fighting, and at one time *Edward Prince of Wales*, a lad of sixteen on his first campaign, was so sorely pressed that a knight was sent to his father to beg for reinforcements. The King refused. "Let him win his spurs," he said (that is, prove himself worthy of knighthood); and gallantly they were won. It is said by an Italian writer of the time that Edward employed cannon or "bombards" in this action, and with good effect. Edward then proceeded to blockade by sea and land the town of *Calais*, which he starved into a surrender. The story goes that he would only spare the people, whom he hated as pirates, on condition that six principal burgesses, bareheaded, barefooted, and with halters about their necks, should give themselves up at discretion. *Eustace of St. Pierre*, the richest of the townsmen, volunteered to sacrifice himself, and his noble example was followed by five others. The King seemed determined to have their heads struck off, and only gave way when his wife, *Philippa of Hainault*, fell in tears at his feet, and begged their lives. The town, which Edward peopled with a colony of English, remained for more than two centuries in possession of our country. A truce was now brought about by the Pope, *Clement VI*. During Edward's absence in France, the Scots, taking the opportunity of invading England, were defeated at *Neville's Cross*, Oct. 12, 1346, and their King, *David Bruce*, made prisoner. Edward's foreign wars were in many respects needless and cruel, but they were not unpopular. The English learned to think themselves born to conquer Frenchmen; and the high rate of pay, the licence of plunder, and the profits made by putting prisoners to ransom, were a source of attraction to enterprising men in all ranks.

3. **The Black Death.**—In 1348 and 1349 a fearful plague called "*The Black Death*," which swept over Europe, killed, so it is believed, more than half the inhabitants of England. Labourers, becoming thereby exceeding scarce, were enabled to command higher wages, though the King and Parliament vainly tried to force them, by the famous laws called the *Statutes of Labourers*, to work for their former hire, and forbade them to move from one county to another.

4. **Battle of Poitiers.**—The French war was renewed in 1355, the chief part being taken by young Edward, known as "*the Black Prince*," either from the colour of the armour he wore at Crécy, or from the terror with which the French regarded him. On the 19th of Sept., 1356, with a small army of English and Gascons, he overthrew at *Poitiers* a great host led by the French King, *John the Good*. The enemy charged up a narrow lane, when the Prince's archers let fly from behind the hedges, and at once threw them into confusion. The King, fighting gallantly, was taken prisoner. With the courtesy of the time, the Prince himself waited upon his royal captive at supper the same evening; and in the following spring, when they entered London, similar respect was paid to John's superior rank, he being mounted on a splendidly caparisoned white charger, while his conqueror rode by his side on a black pony.

5. **Peace of Bretigny.**—A peace was made at *Bretigny*, May 8, 1360, under which John was to ransom himself for three million gold crowns, and Edward gave up his claim to the throne of France, but kept his possessions in Aquitaine, besides Calais and some other small districts, no longer as a vassal, but as an independent sovereign.

6. **The Spanish Expedition.**—In 1367, the Black Prince, who ruled at Bordeaux as *Prince of Aquitaine*, took the part of *Don Pedro* or *Peter the Cruel*, the dethroned King of Castile, and won him back his kingdom by the victory of

Navarrete. But the thankless Pedro broke his promise of repaying Edward's expenses, and the Prince returned to Bordeaux with his health ruined, his temper spoiled, and his treasury drained. Against all advice he levied a hearth-tax; and as the English were already disliked because they "were so proud that they set nothing by any nation but by their own," the Aquitanian nobles turned to the French King *Charles V.*, and war broke out again. The Prince rallied his ebbing strength, but his last exploit—a general massacre of the townsfolk of *Limoges*, which he had retaken—has left a stain on his name. After this cruel deed, he returned to England. By 1374 hardly anything was left to the English in Aquitaine, excepting Bordeaux and Bayonne; and, wearied with disasters, King Edward obtained a truce.

7. *The Good Parliament*.—The King's third son, *John Duke of Lancaster*, called from his birthplace *John of Ghent* or *Gaunt*, now took the lead at home; for the younger Edward was slowly dying, and the elder one had become old and feeble. Good Queen Philippa was dead, and one *Alice Perrers* made use of the King's favour to interfere with the course of justice. The government was wasteful, and the men whom the Duke appointed unworthy of trust. Amid these evils, there met, in 1376, a parliament, gratefully remembered by the title of "*the Good*," which, supported by the Black Prince, boldly set itself to the work of reform. The Commons impeached, or accused before the Lords, several of the Duke's favourites, charging them with making illegal profits, and Alice Perrers was forbidden, under pain of banishment, to meddle in the law-courts. This is the more noteworthy as being the first instance of the Commons using this power of impeachment, or trying to interfere with the ministers of the Crown. On the 8th June, the Prince died; and great was the mourning of the nation for him who had won them fame abroad, and striven with his last

strength to save them from misrule at home. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where his helmet, shield, gauntlets, and surcoat embroidered with the arms of England and France, still hang above his tomb. John of Gaunt now had everything his own way; the former favourites were recalled, and a new parliament was summoned, which undid all the good work of its predecessor.

8. *Death of Edward.*—In his last moments at Shene, Edward was forsaken by all his servants and even by Alice Perrers, after she had robbed him of the rings on his fingers. One priest alone came to the King's bedside, and Edward, in tears, receiving a crucifix from him, kissed it and died, June 21st, 1377. His sons were, *Edward Prince of Wales*, who married his cousin *Joan*, "*the Fair Maid of Kent*;" *Lionel Duke of Clarence*, whose only daughter married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March; *John Duke of Lancaster*; *Edmund of Langley, Duke of York*; and *Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester*. In this reign, St. Stephen's Chapel, Westminster, was finished. The King founded the order of *Knights of the Garter*, and rebuilt the greater part of *Windsor Castle*. His chief architect was *William of Wykeham*, afterwards Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor. Wykeham, in the next reign, founded New College, Oxford, and also the College of Winchester, in which city he himself had been educated.

9. *Legislation.*—In 1352 was passed the *Statute of Treasons*, which clearly stated what offences amounted to high treason. Much was done to restrain the power which the Popes exercised over the English Church and clergy, and the demand made in 1366 by Pope *Urban V.* for thirty-three years' arrears of John's tribute was absolutely refused.

10. *Commerce.*—In 1331 Edward took advantage of discontents among the Flemish weavers to invite them over here, where they settled chiefly in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex,

and brought in the finer manufactures of woollen cloths. The people were so jealous of these newcomers that Edward had no small trouble to protect them. The wool of England was at that time the finest in Europe, and was the chief article of export and source of revenue.

11. John Wycliffe.—In this and the next reign lived *John Wycliffe*, born near Richmond in Yorkshire, a doctor of Oxford, who put forth opinions differing on many points, particularly on the Eucharist, from the received doctrines, assailed alike the wealthy clergy and the Begging Friars, and spread his views abroad by his writings. His great work was a translation of the Bible, made by himself and his followers. Although he was at last forbidden to teach at Oxford, he remained in his rectory of Lutterworth, where he died peaceably in 1384; many years afterwards his bones were taken up and burned as those of a heretic. His disciples were nicknamed *Lollards*.

CHAPTER XX.

RICHARD II.

Richard of Bordeaux; the peasant insurrection (1)—*government of Richard; fall of the Duke of Gloucester* (2)—*Henry of Lancaster; his banishment and return in arms* (3)—*capture, abdication, and deposition of Richard; Henry raised to the throne* (4)—*Statute of Præmunire* (5)—*language* (6)—*literature* (7).

1. Richard II. of Bordeaux, 1377-1399. The Peasant Insurrection of 1381.—*Richard of Bordeaux*, son of the Black Prince, became King at the age of eleven. His reign was troublous and unfortunate. Four years after he ascended the throne, an insurrection broke out among the peasants. The yoke of villainage, which bore more hardly

upon them than of old, and the growing ideas of liberty, fostered, as it was thought, by the teaching of the Lollards, tended to cause discontent, but it was the pressure of a poll-tax of three groats upon every person above fifteen years old, which brought about the actual outbreak. The details of the insurrection are variously given ; but it began among the peasants of Essex, and thence spread to Kent, where the revolt, according to a well-known tradition, was partly brought about by the tax-gatherer's insulting behaviour to a young girl of Dartford. Her father, a tyler by trade, killed the offender on the spot with a stroke of his hammer. The insurgents are said to have numbered 100,000 men by the time they reached Blackheath, where they were harangued upon the equality of mankind by a priest named *John Ball*, who took as his text the rime

" When Adam delved, and Eve span,
Who was then a gentleman ? "

This rude army entered London, pulled down Newgate, letting the prisoners there loose, burnt John of Gaunt's palace of the Savoy, and the Temple, together with its books and records, and butchered all the Flemish artisans they could find ; but in their havoc, they allowed of no plunder for private profit. A large body of them, mostly Essex and Hertfordshire men, withdrew the next day, young Richard having granted their demands, chief of which was the abolition of villainage. But meanwhile another division had entered the Tower, and there seized and beheaded the Archbishop and Chancellor *Simon Sudbury*, and six other men. This force, which seems to have consisted of Kentishmen, remained in arms, and its leader, *Walter* or "*Wat*" *Tyler*, had an interview with the King in Smithfield. Wat is described as behaving insolently, and one account says that he laid his hand on Richard's rein ; at all events, the conference ended in his being stabbed by the Mayor, *Walworth*

and others. The insurgents, according to the story usually told, bent their bows, but Richard boldly rode up to them, exclaiming that he himself would be their leader. They followed him to the fields at Islington, where a considerable force of citizens and others hastened to protect the King; and the rioters, seeing themselves surrounded, submitted and dispersed. In the Eastern counties, the insurrection was put down by Henry Spenser, "the fighting Bishop of Norwich." About a fortnight later, Richard, who indeed could not legally abolish villainage without consent of the Lords and Commons, revoked the charters he had granted; and throughout the country great numbers of the rioters were tried and executed.

2. *Government of Richard.*—Richard was noted for his beauty; but otherwise there was not much to be said in his favour. His abilities, indeed, were good, and he had the power of acting on occasion with quickness and daring; but he was wasteful, dissipated, frivolously fond of shows and pageants, and proud and violent in temper. He allowed himself to be led by favourites who were hated as upstarts, while he mistrusted his uncles who had kept him in tutelage as long as they could. In 1387 the party against the King, which was headed by his youngest uncle *Thomas Duke of Gloucester*, got the upper hand; when exile or death became the lot of Richard's friends. The King never forgave those who took part in these doings. Gloucester however was soon turned out of office, and for nine years Richard governed well. His first wife, "*the Good Queen Anne*" of *Bohemia*, who seems to have been inclined towards the doctrines of Wycliffe, and who was beloved both by her husband and by the nation, died in 1394. Two years later he married a child of eight years old, *Isabel*, daughter of Charles VI. of France. This step was unpopular, as the English had no wish to be friends with France; but Richard desired to secure a long truce from the war with that country

The next year, 1397, by a bold stroke of treachery, he had his uncle Gloucester seized and hurried off to Calais. The governor of that town soon made report that the Duke was dead—secretly murdered, as most thought. By this sudden action Richard struck terror into the Gloucester party, and no one venturing to resist him, he in fact became absolute.

3. **Henry of Lancaster.**—Of the noblemen who had given the King such dire offence in 1387, two only remained—*Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk*, and *Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford*, son of John of Gaunt. In 1398, Hereford accused Norfolk of having spoken slanderously of the King; and Norfolk denying the charge, the matter was to be decided at Coventry by trial of battle. But just as accuser and accused, armed and mounted, were about to set upon each other, Richard stopped the fight, and rid himself of both combatants by banishing Hereford for ten years, and Norfolk for life. When they were gone, he threw all moderation aside. John of Gaunt did not survive his son's exile many months, and his estates, which should have passed to Hereford, were seized by the King. Hereford—*Duke of Lancaster* as he now was—took advantage of Richard's absence on an expedition to Ireland, to return to England. In company with Archbishop *Arundel*, one of the exiles of the Gloucester party, he landed, July 4, 1399, with a few men-at-arms at *Ravenspurne*, then a seaport on the Humber, but which has now long been swallowed by the waves. He was at once joined by the great northern family of *Percy*; and his few followers soon swelled to 60,000 men; while the King's uncle, Edmund Duke of York, who acted as Regent, instead of attacking him, ended by espousing his cause.

4. **Deposition of Richard.**—Owing to contrary winds, Richard heard nothing from England till a fortnight after Henry of Lancaster's landing; and when the news arrived

he still lingered, irresolute, in Ireland. At last he landed in Wales, but his troops fell off from him ; he was deluded into leaving his place of refuge, Conway, by the treachery of *Percy Earl of Northumberland*, who then led him prisoner to Flint Castle, where he was handed over to Henry. He was brought to London, and there formally resigned the crown. The next day, Sept. 30, the Lords and Commons met, and voted his deposition on the ground of misgovernment. Upon this Henry of Lancaster rose, and claimed the crown, as being a descendant of Henry III., and as—so he hinted rather than plainly said—actual master of the realm, which had been near its ruin through bad government. Archbishop Arundel then led him to the throne, on which he was placed amid the shouts of the people who filled Westminster Hall.

5. *Statute of Præmunire*.—In 1393 was passed what is commonly called the *Statute of Præmunire*, which enacted that whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excommunications, bulls or other things against the King and his realm, should be put out of the King's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited. The name of *præmunire*, which was only the first word of the Latin writ by which a man was summoned before the King to answer a charge of contempt against him, was commonly given to the offence of attempting to introduce a foreign jurisdiction.

6. *Language*.—From the twelfth century to the reign of Edward III., we may reckon three written languages in use in England :—*Latin*, common to the clergy and the learned throughout Western Christendom ; *French*, the tongue of the nobles and the gentry ; and *English*, of the people. This last, the native speech, underwent great changes. The *Old-English*, which is now like a foreign tongue to us, ceased to be written or spoken accurately, and fast broke up. In John's reign, French, such as is still current in the

Channel Islands, began to be used instead of Latin as the language of public business ; and to this day the royal assent to bills is announced in parliament in the French words *Le Roi* or *La Reine le veut* ; that is, the King, or the Queen, wills it. The descendants of the Normans, even after they had grown into Englishmen in heart, kept up their ancestors' speech in addition to that of the country. Being a mark of gentility, everybody aspired to some acquaintance with the fashionable jargon, which grew so corrupt that out of England it would hardly have passed for French. The fashion spread till it became laughable ; and meanwhile a new form of English, largely infused with French, was gradually gaining Court favour. By the middle of the reign of Edward III. the rage for the foreign speech had died out, and in 1362 the use of the English tongue was established in the courts of law. The common phrase of "King's English" probably originally meant the standard language of proclamations, charters, and so forth, by contrast with the various dialects of rural districts.

7. Literature.—The historians, being monks and clergymen, chiefly wrote in Latin. Among the best known of this class is *William*, the monk of *Malmesbury*, patronized by that Earl of Gloucester who figures in the wars of Matilda. To the same nobleman was dedicated the *History of the Britons*, by a Welsh monk, *Geoffrey of Monmouth*. This was a collection of Welsh and Breton legends, written with an air of historic gravity ; and the author got the nickname of "*Arthur*" from his glorifying the British Prince of that name. Geoffrey furnished the groundwork for metrical romances in French and English, and his hero still keeps his place in poetry and fairy-tale. Among thirteenth-century writers, *Matthew Paris*, a monk of *St. Albans*, who wrote the history of his own time, is remarkable for the boldness with which he expresses the national grievances. Pre-

eminent among scholars of that age is *Roger Bacon*, who, after having studied at the universities of *Oxford* and *Paris*, became a *Franciscan* or *Grey Friar*. He was our first great experimental philosopher, and long afterwards, when his real merit was forgotten, he was remembered by tradition as a wizard. The last of the Old-English Chroniclers broke off in 1154, the year of Stephen's death. There were English writings in the thirteenth century—political songs, romances, rimed chronicles, devotional works—which are known to students, but it is not till the next century that we meet with any famous names. Among these is *Sir John Mandeville*, held to be the father of English prose, who travelled in Tartary, Persia, Palestine, and other lands, and wrote an account, dedicated to Edward III., of his journeyings. He tells so many absurd marvels that he has got a character for falsehood; but it seems that what he set down of his own knowledge was true, and that his wild tales were Church legends or reports made by others. *Langland* was the author of a long poem, known as the *Vision of Piers Plowman*,—a religious allegory, which is valuable for its details of the everyday life of the people. But the chief poets of the age were *Geoffrey Chaucer* and *John Gower*, who both were influenced by the revival of learning in Italy and by the poets of that nation, and both wrote the new-formed English of the Court, which became our national standard language. Chaucer, who in genius was far above his friend Gower, belonged to the King's household, was patronized by John of Gaunt, and sat in Parliament as one of the members for Kent. He died at Westminster, about a year after Henry IV. came to the throne. His great poem is the unfinished "*Canterbury Tales*," a series of stories supposed to be told by a party of pilgrims of various ranks and callings, on their way to the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury.

CHAPTER XXI.

HENRY IV.

Henry IV. ; the Earl of March (1)—end of Richard (2)—revolt of Wales under Owen Glendower (3)—rebellion of the Percies ; battle of Shrewsbury (4)—story of the Prince of Wales and the Chief Justice (5)—death of Henry (6) ; statute against heretics ; the Lollard martyrs (7).

1. **House of Lancaster.** Henry IV. of Bolingbroke, 1399-1413.—Henry was in fact an elected King, but, as has been seen, he put forward a claim of right which he rested partly on his birth. *Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March*, descended from Lionel Duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt, was nearer to the throne according to the rule of hereditary succession, but he was a mere child, and Henry was satisfied with keeping this possible rival in honourable confinement.

2. **End of Richard.**—By the advice of the Lords, the unfortunate Richard was consigned to secret and perpetual imprisonment ; and so secret was it that even the place of his captivity was concealed. But about six months after Henry's accession, Richard's dead body was brought from Pontefract Castle to London, where it was shown publicly in St. Paul's, and then buried at Langley. Divers rumours were soon current. Some said that he had been killed in prison by Sir Piers Exton and seven other murderers ; a more general belief was that he had died of starvation, either compulsory or voluntary. But the tale which gave Henry the most trouble was that the body shown was that of another, and that Richard was alive in Scotland.

3. **Owen Glendower.**—Henry had scarcely reigned a year before the Welsh, by whom King Richard had been beloved, were in arms. They found a leader in *Owain Glyndwr* or *Owen Glendower*, a gentleman of Merionethshire, who traced his descent from the last Llywelyn Prince of Wales, and who had been esquire to King Richard. He soon made himself a terror to the English, and, as his fame spread, the Welsh scholars from the Universities, and the Welsh labourers employed in England, flocked to join the insurgent chief, against whom Henry led his armies in vain.

4. **Rebellion of the Percies.**—Henry's most powerful friends were the Percies—the *Earl of Northumberland*, his brother, the *Earl of Worcester*, and his son, *Sir Henry*—the last being a thorough "marchman," who had spent his life in foray and battle against the Scots, by whom he was nicknamed "*Hotspur*." He and his father, on Sept. 14th, 1402, won the battle of *Homildon Hill* against the invading Scots. But the Percies became discontented, chiefly because the King would not, or rather could not, repay them what they had spent in warfare. Moreover he refused to permit *Sir Edmund Mortimer* to be ransomed from Glendower, to whom he was captive. Mortimer was Hotspur's brother-in-law, but he was also uncle to the young Earl of March, and Henry was therefore glad to have him out of the way. Being thus offended, Mortimer and the Percies, with the Scottish Earl Douglas, joined Glendower in an enterprise to win the crown for Richard, if alive, or else for the Earl of March. So little did Henry suspect the Percies that he was actually on his way to join them in an expedition against the Scots, when he learned that Hotspur and Worcester were in arms for King Richard. Hurrying westward, he fought an obstinate and bloody battle with them on *Hateley Field* near *Shrewsbury*, July 21 1403, when Hotspur fell, pierced by a shaft in the brain, and his followers fled; Worcester was taken, and paid for his rebel-

lion with his life. The crafty Northumberland, who had not been present, protested that his son had acted in disobedience to him, and came off unpunished. He was afterwards concerned in a northern revolt in 1405, for taking part in which *Scrope Archbishop of York* lost his head ; while the Earl escaped, to be killed in a third rebellion. The power of Glendower, who at times received aid from the French, was gradually broken by *Henry Prince of Wales* ; but he never made any submission.

5. *The Prince of Wales.*— Tradition represents the Prince of Wales, when not engaged in war, as leading a wild life among dissolute companions. But he was so constantly employed, and so highly praised in Parliament, that we may suppose some early freak to have been exaggerated. There is a story about him, not told till a century and a half after his death, but yet too famous to be omitted. One of his servants, it is said, was arraigned for felony before the Chief Justice. Young Henry imperiously demanded the man's release, and, enraged by refusal, made as if he would do some violence to the judge, who thereupon ordered him to the prison of the King's Bench for contempt. The Prince had the good sense to lay aside his weapon and submit to the punishment. His father, on hearing of it, expressed his gratitude to Heaven for giving him a judge who feared not to minister justice, and a son who could obey it. The Prince was in fact so popular, that one time the King stood in fear of being superseded by him, until re-assured by his frank and filial behaviour.

6. *Death of Henry.*— Though only forty-seven years old, King Henry was breaking down in health. His conscience, we are told, was uneasy as to the manner in which he had come by the crown ; and he meditated going on a crusade ; but while praying at St. Edward's shrine in Westminster, he was seized with a fit. His attendants carried him into a

chamber of the Abbot's, called "*Jerusalem*," which remains at this day, and laid him on a pallet near the fire. Coming to himself, he asked where he was ; and being told, he said that he knew he should die there, for it had been prophesied to him that he would depart this life in Jerusalem. He lingered there a few days, and died, March 20, 1413. By his first wife, *Mary de Bohun*, he had four sons : *Henry Prince of Wales* ; *Thomas Duke of Clarence* ; *John Duke of Bedford* ; and *Humfrey Duke of Gloucester*. His second wife was *Joan of Navarre*.

7. Statute against Heretics.—As Archbishop Arundel had supported Henry, Henry in return lent himself to destroy the Lollards. By a statute passed in 1401, persons convicted by the diocesan of heretical opinions, if they refused to abjure, or, after abjuration, relapsed, were to be made over to the secular authorities to be burned. The first Wycliffite martyr was a clergyman, *William Sautree*, burned Feb. 12, 1401. For some time the Commons went along with the King ; but they were jealous of the ecclesiastical power, and, so far as a desire to relieve themselves from taxation by throwing the burthen upon the wealth of the Church was concerned, they were all Lollards. As their feeling against the higher clergy grew stronger, they demanded a mitigation of the statute for burning ; to which Henry answered that it ought rather to be made more severe. In the midst of these disputes, a poor tailor, *John Badby*, was picked out for the second victim, and burned in Smithfield ; the Prince of Wales, who was present, vainly endeavouring to shake the Lollard's constancy by the offer of life and a yearly pension.

CHAPTER XXII.

HENRY V.

Henry V. (1)—*Lord Cobham* (2)—*conspiracy of Cambridge, Scrope, and Grey*; *renewal of the war with France*; *battle of Azincourt* (3)—*Treaty of Troyes* (4)—*third invasion and death of Henry*; *marriage of his widow* (5)—*the Navy* (6)—*Whittington* (7).

1. **Henry V., of Monmouth, 1413-1422.**—Whatever had been the previous life of *Henry of Monmouth*, it is certain that as King he was a man of almost austere piety. As an act of justice, he set free the young Earl of March; after some time he restored the son of Hotspur to the lands and honours of the Percies; and he had the body of King Richard II. removed and buried in Westminster Abbey.

2. **Lord Cobham.**—The alarm created by the Lollards was increasing. Among them were numbered, not only those who did not believe the generally received doctrines, but the discontented and revolutionary also, and they uttered threatening vaunts as to their number and power. Their chief leader, under whose patronage unlicensed preachers spread over the country, was *Sir John Oldcastle*, called *Lord Cobham*. Being adjudged a heretic, he was sent to the Tower, from whence he escaped, and became a terror to the government, which dreaded a Lollard rising under such a leader—for he was a tried soldier. There was some mysterious midnight meeting of Lollards, which was dispersed by the King, and in which Cobham was said to be concerned. After this, he lay hid for a few years; but being then discovered, he was put to death as a traitor and a heretic. Whether he was a

loyal subject hunted down by the priesthood, or a traitor and a revolutionist who aimed at being president of a Lollard commonwealth, remains a matter of dispute.

3. **Renewal of the Hundred Years' War.**—Since the time of the last Edward there had been sometimes truce and sometimes war with France, but never a peace. Henry now resolved on an attempt to recover "his inheritance," the time being favourable, as the French King, *Charles VI.*, was insane, and the country was torn asunder between rival factions. Henry was actually about to embark when discovery was made of a plot, in which the conspirators were his cousin *Richard Earl of Cambridge*, *Lord Scrope of Masham*, and *Sir Thomas Grey of Heton*. All three were executed—an unpromising beginning of an expedition. However, Henry set sail, and landing, Aug. 14, 1415, near *Harfleur*, laid siege to the place, which yielded to his artillery and mines in five weeks. As his army was thinned by disease, his advisers now urged him to return; but, confident in what he believed to be the righteousness of his cause and relying upon Heaven, he took instead the hazardous resolution of marching to Calais. On the plain of *Azincourt* in Picardy, he was confronted by the French army. The English, who had suffered much from bad weather and scanty fare, betook themselves at night to confession and reception of the sacrament; meanwhile the Frenchmen, if we may believe the English report, played at dice for the ransoms of their expected prisoners. The battle was fought the next day, Oct. 25. The French were thrown into confusion by Henry's archers, and, though they fought bravely, their fine army, reckoned at from six to ten times the number of the English, was cut to pieces. When the day was nearly won, an alarm was raised that the French were about to renew the battle, upon which Henry hastily ordered his soldiers to kill their prisoners, lest they should aid the enemy. The mas-

sacre, however, was stopped as soon as the danger had passed away. After the victory, Henry sailed from Calais to Dover, and, with his chief captives in his train, made a triumphant entry into London, amid gorgeous shows and pageants. He himself observed a studied simplicity in dress and bearing, and, it is said, refused to allow his helmet, dented with many blows, to be carried before him.

4. *Treaty of Troyes.*—In July 1417, Henry again invaded Normandy, and won fortress after fortress, while the French were occupied with quarrels among themselves. Rouen, after a gallant defence, surrendered, and there Henry built a palace and held his court. At last the French Queen, and Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, who had the King in their keeping, made at *Troyes*, May 21, 1420, a treaty with the English invader, by which he obtained the hand of the King's daughter *Katharine*, the regency of the kingdom, and the succession after Charles' death to the crown, which was to be for ever united with that of England. But as the French King's eldest son, the *Dauphin Charles*, who was thus disinherited, of course did not acknowledge this treaty, war was still carried on with him and his friends.

5. *Death of Henry.*—Henry now returned to England with his new-made Queen ; but ere long he was recalled to France by the defeat and death of his brother the Duke of Clarence, in battle with the Dauphin's men and their Scottish auxiliaries. On this campaign Henry carried with him young King *James I.* of Scotland, who sixteen years ago had been unjustly made prisoner by Henry IV., and his presence served as an excuse for executing as a traitor every captured Scot. By the taking of Meaux, Henry became actual master of the greater part of France north of the Loire ; but his career was now run. He sickened, and died at Vincennes, Aug. 31, 1422, maintaining to the end his wonted composure. When during his last hours the minis-

ters of religion around his bed were by his order reciting the penitential psalms, he interrupted them at the words "Build Thou the walls of Jerusalem," and said that he had intended, after effecting peace in France, to go to Jerusalem and free the Holy City. This was no mere death-bed resolution. Henry had really meditated a Crusade, and had sent out a Burgundian knight, Gilbert de Lannoy, to survey the coasts and defences of Egypt and Syria. This survey was completed and reported just after the King's untimely death. Henry's own people, and especially his soldiers, well-nigh worshipped him. His funeral procession from Paris and Rouen to Calais, and from Dover to London and Westminster, was more sumptuous than that of any King before him. The sacred relics were removed from the eastern end of the Confessor's chapel in Westminster Abbey to make room for his tomb, which was honoured almost as that of a saint. Above the tomb there still hang his saddle and his helmet. Henry left one son, an infant only a few months old, who bore his name. His widow Katharine afterwards made an ill-assorted match with one of her attendants, a Welsh gentleman called *Owen Tudor*—the origin of the Tudor line.

6. **The Navy.**—The honour of founding a royal navy is claimed for Henry V. Hitherto the King had depended for his fleet upon ships furnished by the Cinque Ports and other maritime towns, or those pressed from his subjects, or hired from foreigners; but Henry in addition built large vessels of his own.

7. **Richard Whittington.**—To this period belonged "the flower of merchants," *Richard Whittington*, thrice Lord Mayor of London—first under Richard II., then under Henry IV., and again under Henry V. The familiar tale of Whittington and his Cat is an old legend; but what, if any, foundation there was for it, is not known. Whittington at

any rate had a real existence ; he advanced large sums to Henry V. for his wars, and was a benefactor to the City of London.

CHAPTER XXIII.

HENRY VI.

Henry VI. ; the Maid of Orleans (1)—strife among the nobles, Henry's marriage ; murder of Suffolk (2)—Jack Cade's rebellion (3)—Wars of the Roses ; succession of the Duke of York ; his death ; Edward of York raised to the throne (4).

1. Henry VI. of Windsor, 1422-1461.—By the deaths of Henry V. and Charles VI. within two months of each other, the infant *Henry of Windsor* became King of England and France ; though in the latter country there was a rival King, the Dauphin, who reigned at Bourges as Charles VII., and kept up the war with *John Duke of Bedford*, who was Regent of France for his nephew. In 1428 the English began the siege of *Orleans*, and its fall, which would lay Charles' provinces open to them, seemed at hand, when France was delivered as by a miracle. From Domrémy a peasant girl of sixteen, *Joan of Arc* by name, came to Charles, declaring herself sent by Heaven to conduct him to *Rheims* for his coronation. Rheims, the crowning-place of the French Kings, was then in the English power. Mounted and armed like a knight, Joan led the Dauphin's army to Orleans, where she raised the siege ; and thenceforth the stout English soldiers quailed before the "*Maid of Orleans*." Her mission in their eyes was not from Heaven, but from hell, and for that they feared her all the more. Fresh successes increased her reputation : *Lord Talbot*, one of the best of the English

captains, encountered her, June 18, 1429, at Patay, where he was defeated and taken prisoner. As she had promised, Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims. But in the next year, while heading a sally from Compiègne, she was taken prisoner by the Burgundians, who sold her to the English, Charles never so much as offering to ransom her. The English council delivered her to be tried at Rouen by Cauchon Bishop of Beauvais, and French churchmen lent themselves to her destruction. Condemned as a heretic, the heroic maid was burned alive at Rouen, May 30, 1431, a victim to the ingratitude of her friends and the brutality of her foes. But she had awakened the spirit of France, and the English began to lose ground. Bedford died in 1435, and gradually both the inheritance of Henry II. and the subsequent conquests were lost past recovery. In 1452 the people of Aquitaine, and especially those of Bordeaux, which had capitulated to Charles in the previous year, sought to return to the milder government of England, but the veteran Talbot, now *Earl of Shrewsbury*, who was sent to their aid, was overthrown and killed at Chatillon, 1453, and Bordeaux was forced again to surrender to the French. To England nothing was left but Calais and a barren title, and thus ended the *Hundred Years' War*.

2. *Government in England.*—Meanwhile in England there had been nothing but jealousies and struggles among the great men. In the first place Henry's uncle, *Humfrey Duke of Gloucester*, called "*the Good*," who was Protector during the King's early childhood, strove for the mastery with *Beaufort*, *Bishop of Winchester*, and afterwards *Cardinal*. Henry himself, gentle and of weak intellect, had no more authority as a man than he had had as a child, and after his marriage in 1445, his wife *Margaret* and her favourite counsellor, *William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk*, had the chief power. Margaret was the daughter of *René of Anjou*, nominal

King of Sicily, to whom, amidst much murmuring, Anjou and Maine, then held by the English, were given up. Suffolk, disliked as the negotiator of this match, was also popularly believed to have caused the death of Gloucester, which took place in 1447; but when loss after loss befell the English in France, the indignation against the minister who thus misconducted affairs rose to fury. To satisfy the House of Commons the King, in 1450, sentenced him to five years' banishment; but his enemies would not let him escape so easily. On his passage to Calais he was intercepted by a vessel of the English navy, and his head struck off.

3. Jack Cade.—The murder of Suffolk was followed by a formidable insurrection of the people of Kent under one *John* or *Jack Cade*, who called himself by the more dignified name of *John Mortimer*. They encamped on Blackheath to the number of 20,000, and from thence sent to the King a statement of their grievances—the maladministration of the government, the evil counsellors of the King, the oppressive action of the Statutes of Labourers, the extortions of the sheriffs and tax-gatherers, and the interference of the lords in county elections. Sir Humfrey Stafford being sent against the insurgents, was defeated and slain; after which, the Kentish captain entered London unresisted. Gallantly arrayed like a lord or knight, he rode through the streets to London-stone, which he struck with his sword, saying, "Now is Mortimer lord of this city." Getting *Lord Saye and Sele*, one of the King's most obnoxious ministers, into his power, he had him beheaded in Cheapside. Saye's son-in-law, Cromer, sheriff of Kent, who was accused of extortion, underwent the same fate. The plundering of some houses turned the citizens against Cade, and with the aid of soldiers from the Tower they defended London Bridge against him. After a six hours' conflict, most of his followers

dispersed on the consent of the Council to admit their complaints, which had before been refused, and upon promise of pardon. Cade soon after fled, and being hotly pursued by *Iden*, sheriff of Kent, was either killed on the spot or mortally wounded.

4. **The Wars of York and Lancaster, or of the Roses.**—The nobles, long accustomed to enrich themselves at the expense of France, and not disposed to retrench their living, found England, to which they were now confined, too small for them, and struggled among themselves for supremacy. The Dukes of York and of Somerset headed the rival factions. *Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset*, the representative of an illegitimate branch of the House of Lancaster, and suspected of pretensions to the throne, was the favourite at Court, but the loss of Normandy being laid to his charge, he was disliked by the people. *Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York*, who inherited the claims of the House of Clarence upon the crown, had commanded both in France and Ireland, and was highly thought of. In 1454 the King having become imbecile, the Parliament made York Protector; but within a year Henry recovered the small faculties with which nature had endowed him, and Somerset was again in the ascendant. York then took up arms, and overthrew and killed his rival in the battle of *St. Albans*, May 23, 1455. There was a hollow peace for a time, but in 1459 civil strife again broke out. These contests are called the *Wars of the Roses*, because the badge of the House of Lancaster was a *red rose*, and that of the House of York a *white* one. On the 10th July, 1460, the Yorkist party gained a complete victory at *Northampton*, Henry being captured, and the Queen and her son flying to Scotland. In the autumn a Parliament met, in which York claimed the crown. The matter was settled by a compromise. Henry was to reign for his life, and Richard of York to succeed him, Henry's

only son *Edward* being thus set aside. But many nobles still upheld the interests of the young Prince, and York, with inferior forces, encountering the Lancastrians near *Wakefield*, was completely defeated. York either fell in the fight or was beheaded immediately after; and with him perished his son *Edmund Earl of Rutland*, a youth of seventeen, who, according to some, was killed in cold blood by Lord Clifford. Many other prisoners were executed, and York's head, encircled with a paper crown, was set on the walls of the city from which he took his title. His death however was soon avenged in the bloody fight of *Mortimer's Cross*, Herefordshire, by his eldest son *Edward*, now *Duke of York*, who followed up his victory by a like course of executions. Margaret, meanwhile, who had joined her friends, advanced upon London, defeating on the way in the second battle of *St. Albans* a leading Yorkist, *Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick*, and rescuing the King, whom the flying Yorkists left behind them. But her army, largely composed of Border plunderers, wasted its time in pillaging; and Edward, joining Warwick, boldly marched into London, where in an assembly of peers, prelates, and citizens, he was declared King, March 3, 1461. Thus ended the reign, though not the life, of the unfortunate Henry, who is to be remembered as the founder of *Eton College*, and of *King's College, Cambridge*. His wife was the first foundress of *Queen's College* in that University.



CHAPTER XXIV.

EDWARD IV.

Edward IV.; battle of Towton (1)—efforts of Margaret; depression of the Lancastrians (2)—marriage of Edward; Clarence and Warwick change sides; restoration of Henry; return of Edward;

battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury; death of Henry VI.; Richard Duke of Gloucester (3)—invasion of France (4)—death of Clarence; death of Edward (5).

1. **House of York.** Edward IV., 1461—1483.—*Edward*, marching northwards, completed his triumph by the victory of *Towton* (near Tadcaster), fought in a snowstorm on Palm Sunday, March 29. Quarter having been forbidden by both sides, the slaughter was great. Henry and his family, who had awaited within the walls of York the issue of the fight, escaped to the Borders. The new King, then about nineteen years of age, passed for the most accomplished, and, until he grew unwieldy, the handsomest man of his time; and he had the art of making himself popular; but he was bloodthirsty, unforgiving, and licentious.

2. **The Lancastrians.**—For three years Margaret and her friends, flitting between England, Scotland, and the Continent, maintained a fitful struggle in the north, until the defeats of *Hedgley Moor* and *Hexham* crushed them for a time. It is said that during her wanderings Margaret fell among thieves, and was plundered of all she had. While they quarrelled over their booty, she escaped with her young son Edward into the depths of the forest. There she was met by another robber, to whom, in desperation, she presented the boy, saying, "Here, my friend, save the son of thy King." The outlaw's generosity was touched, and he led them to a place of safety. The ascendancy of the White Rose brought great suffering upon the Lancastrians, their lands being made over to Yorkists, and themselves reduced to exile and poverty. *Henry Holland, Duke of Exeter*, concealing his name, is known to have followed the Duke of Burgundy's train barefoot, and begging from door to door. King Henry, after the defeat of Hexham, lay for more than a year hidden in Lancashire and Westmoreland; but he was finally betrayed and brought prisoner to the Tower.

3. Wars of the Roses renewed.—In the autumn of 1464, Edward avowed his marriage with *Elizabeth*, daughter of Sir Richard Wydevile, and widow of Sir John Grey, a Lancastrian. Her beauty won his heart when she was a suppliant to him for the restoration of her husband's estates. Honours and riches were showered upon her kindred—father, brothers, sisters, sons—with a profusion which offended the old nobility, and especially the Earl of Warwick and his brothers. Warwick was not a man who could be safely provoked. He was exceeding wealthy, his hospitality endeared him to the people, and he could raise an army at his word. In his various mansions 30,000 people are said to have been daily fed, and when he was in London, whoever had any acquaintance in his household might come and take as much meat as he could carry off on a dagger. Warwick was joined in his opposition to the Wydeviles by *George Duke of Clarence*, the King's brother, who married the Earl's daughter Isabel. A series of insurrections broke out, in which, with the exception of one raised by the Lancastrians, Warwick and his new son-in-law took a more or less open part, until in 1470 they were obliged to fly into France. Ere long they returned, and proclaimed King Henry; for at the French court Warwick, meeting his old foe Queen Margaret, had gone over to her side, and had married his daughter *Anne* to her son Edward. The people gathered to him in crowds, and it was now King Edward's turn to fly the country; while his wife took refuge in the sanctuary at Westminster, where she was protected by the religious feeling of the age; and Henry was replaced on the throne. Edward found shelter in the dominions of *Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy*, who had married his sister *Margaret*. It was a time of sudden revolutions. On the 14th March, 1471, he came back with a small force, landing, like Henry of Bolingbroke before him, at Ravenspurne, and with equal success. His brother

Clarence returned to his side, and Warwick—the “*King-maker*” as he was called—was overthrown and slain, together with his brother the Marquess of Montacute, at *Barnet*, on Easter Sunday, April 14. The struggle was not quite over, for that same day Queen Margaret landed, and her army encountered Edward, May 4, at *Tewkesbury*, where it was utterly defeated, she herself being captured soon after. Her son Edward was killed: the common story is that he was brought before his victorious namesake, who asked him how he durst be so bold as to make war in his realm. The youth made answer that he came to recover his inheritance, upon which the King’s brothers, or their attendants, despatched him with their swords. The victory was followed up by the execution of the Lancastrian leaders. Henry, who had been again imprisoned in the Tower, died shortly after—of a broken heart, as the Yorkists said, or murdered, according to Lancastrian rumour, by Edward’s youngest brother, *Richard Duke of Gloucester*. Queen Margaret, after five years’ captivity, was ransomed by *King Louis XI.* of France, and died in her own country of Anjou. Anne Neville, widow of the slain Prince Edward, married the Duke of Gloucester, who is known to us by the nickname of “*Crook-back Richard*,” and as one of the greatest of villains. Ambitious and unscrupulous he certainly was; but as the detailed accounts of him were written after his death, and in the interest of his adversaries, we cannot depend upon them, even in so small a matter as the straightness of his shoulders.

4. *Invasion of France.*—Having nothing else to do, the King determined on the renewal of the claim to the French crown. Not satisfied with the large sums which Parliament readily granted to him for this object, but not venturing to levy taxes on his sole authority, Edward obtained from the wealthy citizens, who did not know how to refuse the King’s requests, additional money under the name of a “bene-

volence." The invasion however came to nothing. The crafty Louis XI., who did not want to fight, persuaded his enemy to go quietly home in consideration of receiving an annual pension; and truce was made in Aug. 1475 at *Picquigny*, near Amiens, to the disgust of Edward's soldiers and people.

5. **Death of Edward.**—The Duke of Clarence came to his end in 1478. His royal brother charged him with treason, the peers found him guilty, and about ten days later it was given out that he had died in the Tower—how was never certainly known, but a wild story flew about that he had been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. Edward himself died April 9, 1483, while preparing for another French war. He left two sons, *Edward Prince of Wales*, and *Richard Duke of York*; one twelve, the other ten years old.

CHAPTER XXV

EDWARD V.

Edward V.; seizure of power by the Dukes of Gloucester and Buckingham (1)—execution of Lord Hastings; the Duke of Gloucester raised to the throne (2).

1. **Edward V. April 9—June 22, 1483. Protectorate of Gloucester.**—*Edward V.* reigned less than three months, and was never crowned. At the time of his father's death he was living at Ludlow Castle, surrounded by his mother's kinsmen and friends. But on his road to London, he was met by his uncle *Richard Duke of Gloucester*, and by *Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham*, the chiefs of the party against the Wydeviles. These two, by a sudden stroke of treachery and violence, arrested his mother's brother,

Earl Rivers, his mother's son, Lord Grey, and two other of his friends, and, ordering the rest of the royal train to disperse, they, with their own followers, brought the King to London. The poor boy, seeing his friends thus taken from him, "wept and was nothing content, but it booteth not." His mother, as soon as she heard of it, fled with her second son *Richard Duke of York*, and her five daughters, to the sanctuary at Westminster. The King was lodged in the Tower, then a palace as well as a fortress and a prison ; and Gloucester was appointed *Protector*.

2. *Deposition of Edward*.—So far, Gloucester and his supporters, of whom *Lord Hastings* was one, had been united by a common hatred of the Wydeviles ; but it is plain that they now disagreed among themselves. On June 13, for some unknown reason, Hastings, by order of the Protector, was seized at the council-board in the Tower, and put to death out of hand. The same afternoon proclamation was made that Hastings and his friends had conspired to murder the Dukes of Gloucester and Buckingham. The prisoners of the Wydevile party were beheaded without trial at Pontefract. The little Duke of York was removed from his mother in the sanctuary to join his brother in the Tower, and thus Gloucester had both his nephews in his hands. On Sunday, June 22, one Doctor Ralf Shaw preached a sermon at *Paul's Cross*—a cross and pulpit which then stood at the north-east corner of St. Paul's—setting forth that the children were illegitimate on the ground of an alleged earlier marriage or contract of Edward IV., and that the Lord Protector was the rightful inheritor of the Crown. It appears that the claim thus first put forward was accepted by an assembly of Lords and Commons ; at any rate, on June 26 the Duke of Gloucester sat in Westminster Hall as *King Richard III.* of England.

CHAPTER XXVI.

RICHARD III.

Double coronation of Richard ; plots against him ; disappearance of the sons of Edward (1)—the Earl of Richmond ; execution of Buckingham (2)—legislation (3)—death of Anne ; invasion of Richmond ; battle of Bosworth ; fall of Richard (4)—printing (5)—literature (6).

1. Richard III. 1483-1485.—*Richard* and *Anne* his wife were crowned at Westminster, July 6, 1483, the preparations which had been made for the coronation of the nephew serving for those of the uncle. To please the North-country men, with whom he was popular, the King and Queen were a second time crowned in York Minster. While they were thus spending their time, plots were formed against Richard, in which Buckingham, hitherto his chief ally, joined. In the south and west, there was much murmuring at the captivity of Edward's sons, and a rising for their release was about to take place, when it was reported that the children were no longer living. In the next reign, it was given out that *Sir James Tyrrel* and *John Dighton* had confessed that on the refusal of *Brackenbury*, Constable of the Tower, to put his young prisoners to death, Richard had bidden that the keys of the Tower should be delivered to Tyrrel for twenty-four hours, and that Tyrrel's groom *Dighton*, together with one *Miles Forrest*, had smothered the sleeping children in their bed, and then buried them at the stair-foot. It was further rumoured that by Richard's desire a priest of *Brackenbury's* household had removed the bodies elsewhere. Some however have doubted the murder, notwithstanding the apparent confirmation of the popular belief by a discovery made 191

years later of the bones of two boys, of about the age of the young princes, lying buried in the White Tower under the staircase leading to the chapel. The reigning King, Charles II., had them removed to Henry the Seventh's Chapel as the remains of Edward V. and Richard Duke of York.

2. *Revolt of Buckingham.*—The party against Richard consisted of Buckingham, many old Lancastrians, and some of the Wydeviles, acting in concert with *Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond*, who on the father's side was a grandson of Owen Tudor and Katharine, widow of Henry V., and on the mother's a descendant, through the Beaufort line, of John of Gaunt, and who, in the absence of any other offshoot of the House of Lancaster, was accepted as the representative of its claim to the throne. He was then an exile in Brittany;—indeed, from the time he was five years old, so he said, he had always been either a fugitive or a prisoner. The present revolt did not better his position, for Buckingham, deserted by his troops, was betrayed, and beheaded at Salisbury; the other confederates dispersed; and Richmond, whose fleet had been scattered by a storm, did not venture to land. Executions of the disaffected followed, and among the sufferers was, according to the common tale, one Collingbourne, who had made a couplet upon Richard and his three counsellors, Ratcliffe, Catesby, and Lord Lovel:—

“The Rat, the Cat, and Lovel our Dog,
Rule all England under the Hog.”

The King's cognizance was a wild boar, and the rimer lost his head for thus insulting it.

3. *Legislation.*—In January 1484 a Parliament was held by which a statute was passed forbidding the exaction of “benevolences.” Another Act, while laying restrictions upon foreign traders, expressly excepts from its operation trade in

books "written or printed." The statutes of this reign were the first ever printed.

4. **Death of Richard.**—In March 1485, Queen Anne died of sorrow for the loss of her only son Edward, or, as Richard's enemies afterwards suggested, of poison given by her husband. The King then declared his nephew, *John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln*, his heir. According to some, Richard was haunted by the memory of his murdered nephews; he knew no peace of mind, his hand was ever on his dagger, his rest broken by fearful dreams. Whether he was troubled by imaginary dangers or not, he had a real one in Richmond, whom the exiles and malcontents had chosen for their chief, on his promise, if he obtained the Crown, to marry *Elizabeth*, daughter of Edward IV. On the 7th August, Richmond, with a body of adventurers, mostly Normans, landed at Milford Haven, and, advancing into the country, was met by Richard, with an army double in number. A story is told that *John Howard, Duke of Norfolk*, received a warning, which, however, he disregarded, against joining the King. It was in two lines written on his gate:—

"Jack of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold."

This was true enough; for Richmond's step-father *Lord Stanley*, who could muster many followers in Cheshire and Lancashire, and *Percy Earl of Northumberland*, both holding offices under Richard, had been gained by Richmond. When the battle began near *Market Bosworth*, Aug. 22, Richard found the Stanleys opposed to him, Northumberland not stirring a foot, and his men wavering. He nevertheless fought hand to hand with desperate courage, cutting his way up to his rival, but fell overpowered by numbers. Lord Stanley took his crown, and set it on the head of Richmond, who was hailed as King. Richard's body was thrown across

a horse, and carried to the Grey Friars' Church at Leicester, where it was buried with scant ceremony.

5. *Printing*.—So long as books could only be multiplied in manuscript they were of necessity both scarce and dear. The monks were at first copyists as well as authors, but after a while copying became a trade, and books grew somewhat cheaper. Under Edward IV. the charge of a copyist was twopence a leaf for prose and a penny for verse of about thirty lines to the page. Adding the price of the paper, we may reckon that a good copy of a prose work cost, at the present value of money, about two shillings a leaf. Paper had begun to take the place of parchment about the middle of the fourteenth century. But in the reign of Edward IV. a great invention was introduced, which was to put an end to this laborious copying. About 1474, *William Caxton*, a native of the Weald of Kent, who had learned the new art of printing abroad—in the Netherlands it is supposed—came home, and set up as a printer in Westminster. The King and his court gave him their countenance, and the Queen's brother, the accomplished *Anthony Wydevile*, *Earl Rivers*, translated for Caxton's press a French work, "The Dicts and notable wise Sayings of Philosophers." A large number of the books printed by Caxton were translations from the French, and all were in what is called *black-letter* type.

6. *Literature*.—The fifteenth century did not give us any very famous writers. *John Lydgate*, who flourished about 1430, though not a man of much genius, was a favourite poet of his own day. He was a monk of Bury St. Edmund's, where he opened a school, and taught literature and versification. *Reginald Pecock*, Bishop of St. Asaph in the reign of Henry VI. wrote against the Lollards, but, being adjudged to have himself fallen into heresy, was obliged to burn his books publicly at Paul's Cross, and was deprived of his

bishopric. *Sir John Fortescue*, Chief Justice of the King's Bench in the same reign, wrote for the instruction of the young Prince of Wales, to whom he was governor during his retreat in France, a Latin treatise upon the laws of England. In this he impresses upon his pupil that the kingly power in England is not absolute, but limited, and that the country owed its prosperity to its freedom. The *Mort Darthur*, or *Death of Arthur*, a fine prose romance, founded upon French fictions, was composed by *Sir Thomas Malory*, and printed in 1485 by Caxton. *Julyans* or *Juliana Berners*, said to have been prioress of Sopewell nunnery near St. Albans, was the authoress of treatises upon hunting and hawking. The spirited ballad of *Chevy Chase*, which recounts a fierce fray between the Percy and Douglas of the days of Henry IV., may perhaps have been composed during the reign of Henry VI., but some would date it a century later. There is another and better-known version of the same story, which is more modern still. Among ballad heroes, *Robin Hood*, a legendary captain of outlaws and deerstealers, frequenting Nottinghamshire and Yorkshire, stands chief. Whether he had any real existence is uncertain, but he was a subject for popular song as far back as the days of Edward III. A few of the ballads about him which have come down to us perhaps belong to the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. One of the best, "The Little Geste of Robin Hood," which places its hero in the days of some King Edward, was printed early in the reign of Henry VIII., and shows strongly the popular dislike of the higher clergy, whom the bold outlaw is represented as making his special prey.

CHAPTER XXVII.

HENRY VII.

Henry Tudor ; Yorkist risings ; Lambert Simnel (1)—war with France (2)—Richard Plantagenet or Perkin Warbeck ; execution of Stanley ; surrender of Perkin ; execution of Perkin and Warwick (3)—marriages of Henry's children (4)—Empson and Dudley ; death of Henry (5)—allegiance to the King de facto (6).

1. House of Tudor. Henry VII. 1485-1509.—The coronation of *Henry Tudor* on the battle-field was followed up by a more formal one at Westminster, and without entering into questions of title, Parliament settled the crown on Henry and his heirs, and in order to unite the rival roses, pressed him to carry out the intended marriage with *Elizabeth of York*. This accordingly took place Jan. 18, 1486, though it is said that his dislike to the House of York led him to treat her with coldness. Another representative of that House, young *Edward Earl of Warwick*, son of George Duke of Clarence, he at once shut up in the Tower; and altogether the King made his hand so heavy upon the Yorkists as to bring about a rising within a year of his accession, in which Lord Lovel "the dog" was one of the leaders. This was soon quelled; but the next year the Yorkists made one of the wildest attempts on record. A youth appeared, asserting himself to be the Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. Margaret, widow of the Duke of Burgundy, and sister of Edward IV., furnished the Earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel with troops to support him, and he was crowned King in Ireland, where the House of York had always been beloved; but few joined him in England, and his German

and Irish army was overthrown by Henry's troops at Stoke-upon-Trent, June 16, 1487. The Earl of Lincoln, and most of the Yorkist leaders, fell; Lovel fled, and was never heard of again; while the pretended Warwick, who was one *Lambert Simnel*, son of a joiner at Oxford, was captured, and treated with contemptuous mercy, Henry making him a scullion in his kitchen.

2. **Foreign affairs.**—In character Henry was cautious, crafty, fond of money, and ingenious in acquiring it. In 1487 there was war between Brittany and France, and the English being well-disposed to help Brittany, the cunning King got subsidies from Parliament, renewed the extortion of money by "benevolences," and under a pretence of war filled his coffers. At last, in 1492, he passed over to France, laid siege to Boulogne for a few days, made peace, and led his murmuring army back. Besides the public treaty there was a private one, by which the King of France bound himself to pay a hundred and forty-nine thousand pounds to the King of England.

3. **Perkin Warbeck.**—Meanwhile a new claimant to the throne had appeared, styling himself *Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York*. According to his own account, he was the second son of Edward IV., and had been saved alive when his brother Edward V. was put to death; according to Henry, he was one *Perkin Warbeck* or *Pierce Osbeck*, of Tournay; and people are still in doubt whether he was an impostor or not. He first showed himself in Cork, where he was well received; then went to France, and thence to Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret of Burgundy received him with open arms. The King discovering, by means of spies, that communications were carried on between the friends of "Richard" in England and those abroad, some executions took place, amongst which was that of *Sir William Stanley*, who had saved Henry's life on Bosworth

Field. The general suspicion was that Stanley suffered in order that his enormous wealth might be forfeited to the crown. In 1496 "Richard" passed into Scotland, where the King, *James IV.*, gave him his kinswoman Katharine Gordon in marriage. In the next year the adventurer, landing in Cornwall, was there joined by many of the people, but on the approach of the royal army he left his followers and took sanctuary, surrendering in a few days on promise that his life should be spared. His beautiful wife, "the White Rose," as she was called, became an attendant on Henry's Queen. For nearly two years "Richard" lived a prisoner, but in 1499 he and a fellow-captive, Warwick, who for no crime but his birth had lain for fourteen years in the Tower, were tried and executed on a charge of high treason. The two young men, it was alleged, had planned escape, after which the adventurer was to be again proclaimed as King Richard IV. But it was suspected that the Earl was sacrificed to Henry's scheme for wedding his son to a Spanish princess, whose father, King Ferdinand of Aragon, crafty and careful as Henry himself, had said plainly that he did not consider the alliance a safe one as long as Warwick lived.

4. *Marriages of Henry's children.*—In 1501, at the age of fifteen, the King's eldest son, named *Arthur* in memory of the Welsh hero from whom Henry claimed descent, was married to *Katharine of Aragon*. But Arthur dying within five months' time, his young widow was contracted to the King's second son *Henry*, a dispensation having been obtained from the Pope to legalize this union with a brother's wife. With intent to cement the peace between England and Scotland, the King's eldest daughter *Margaret* was married in 1503 to James IV. of Scotland; and this politic alliance proved in the end the means of uniting the two kingdoms of Britain.

5. *Extortions of Henry. Empson and Dudley.*—In the

latter part of his reign Henry made himself hateful by his extortions. His chief instruments were two lawyers, *Richard Empson* and *Edmund Dudley*, who raked up long-forgotten statutes in order to exact fines for their transgression. The whole course of justice was wrested to furnish pretences for extorting money, and the employment of false witnesses, or "promoters," rendered it hardly possible for the most innocent to escape. Henry thus at once added to his hoards, and kept his subjects from growing dangerously rich. He died April 21, 1509, at the palace of Shene, which he had rebuilt with great magnificence, and had called, after his earlier title, *Richmond*. He was buried in his own beautiful chapel in Westminster Abbey.

6. Allegiance.—The attempts of Warbeck and the uncertainty of Henry's title caused the passing of an important statute, by which it was declared to be the duty of a subject to serve the sovereign *for the time being*, and that no one, for so doing, should be convict or attaint of treason. This was to prevent the recurrence of the state of things which had existed during the Wars of the Roses, when men were punished at one time for following York, and at another for following Lancaster. In technical language, it protected those who served the King *de facto* (King by fact, actual King) even though he might not be King *de jure* (King by right).

CHAPTER XXVIII.

HENRY VIII.

Henry VIII. ; beheading of Empson and Dudley (1)—battle of the Spurs ; battle of Flodden ; marriages of Mary Tudor ; Field of the Cloth of Gold (2)—Cardinal Wolsey ; divorce of Katharine

of Aragon; marriage with Anne Boleyn; fall and death of Wolsey; separation from Rome; the Reformation, religious and political (3)—the King's wives (4)—Thomas Cromwell; suppression of the monasteries; the Pilgrimage of Grace; Reginald Pole; the Bible; the Six Articles; beheading of Cromwell; religious affairs (5)—wars with Scotland and France (6)—beheading of the Earl of Surrey; death and will of Henry (7)—Defender of the Faith (8)—Wales and Ireland (9)—the navy (10).

1. Henry VIII. 1509-1547.—The new King was a handsome youth of eighteen, highly educated and accomplished; but though he gave fair promise, *Henry* was of a fierce and tyrannical nature. Yet he had a regard for the mere letter of the law, even while he bent the law to his caprice. To satisfy the revenge of those whom they had injured, Empson and Dudley were beheaded on a frivolous charge of high treason, and thus, though bad men, they suffered unjustly for crimes which they had not committed.

2. War with France. Scottish Invasion.—Henry soon mixed himself up in continental wars, and, allied with the *Emperor-elect Maximilian*, in 1513 routed the French at *Guinegate*, in what was jestingly called "*the Battle of the Spurs*," from the panic-stricken flight of the enemy's cavalry. The Scots took advantage of this war to invade England, but were defeated by *Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey*, in a battle beneath *Flodden* hill, Sept. 9, 1513, where their King, James IV., together with the flower of their nation, were left dead on the field. The next year peace was made with the French, their King, *Louis XII.*, marrying Henry's sister *Mary*, who, being left a widow in three months' time, at once gave her hand to *Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk*. In June 1520 Henry had a series of friendly meetings with the new King of France, *Francis I.*, between *Guines* and *Ardres*, in which such splendour was displayed that the meeting-place was called "*The Field of the Cloth of Gold*."

But nothing came of these interviews, for Henry was soon won over to the interests of the Emperor, *Charles V.*, in alliance with whom, in 1522, he undertook a new war against France. Peace was made in 1525, the French agreeing to pay Henry an annual pension.

3. Breach with Rome.—During this period the King had been guided by *Thomas Wolsey*, a priest, and son of a burgess of Ipswich. Able and ambitious, Wolsey had by his talents raised himself to the highest pitch of favour, and honours and promotions were showered upon him; he became Archbishop of York, Chancellor, a Cardinal, and the Papal Legate; and he even hoped to be Pope himself. But a series of unforeseen circumstances brought about the sudden downfall of this powerful minister. The King and his wife *Katharine*, to whom he had been married in the first year of his reign, had only one child living, *Mary*, born in 1516. Disappointed at having no son to succeed him, the King, according to his own story, began to think that this marriage with his brother's wife was displeasing to Heaven. His scruples were quickened or suggested by his having pitched upon *Katharine's* successor, *Anne Boleyn*, a beautiful and lively maid of honour. He applied for a divorce to *Pope Clement VII.*, who, equally unwilling to offend either Henry or *Katharine's* nephew the Emperor Charles, could not make up his mind what to do. At last, after the matter had dragged on for five years, and the Universities and learned men at home and abroad had been consulted, Henry privately married *Anne Boleyn*. The newly appointed Primate, *Thomas Cranmer*, who had laboured zealously in the King's cause, then pronounced the marriage with *Katharine* to have been null and void from the beginning (May 23, 1533). The forsaken wife, who steadily refused to forego her title of Queen, died three years later. More however than the fortunes of *Katharine* or *Anne* had been concerned in this

affair. Henry became dissatisfied with Cardinal Wolsey, whose enemies, chief among whom was Anne, were now able to ruin him. The chancellorship was taken from him, and he was obliged to make over his palace of York-place (now *Whitehall*) to the King. In 1530, the year after he had fallen from power, he was arrested for high treason, and brought towards London, but, sickening on the way, he died at Leicester Abbey, saying on his death-bed, "If I had served God as diligently as I have done the King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs." Nor was the fall of Wolsey all. Moved by this dispute, Henry went along with the general desire for a reform of ecclesiastical abuses, and step by step the English Church was withdrawn from the power of the Pope. A statute in restraint of appeals enacted that from Easter, 1534, there should be no appeals to the Bishop or See of Rome. All payments to Rome were stopped, and the King was declared to be *Supreme Head of the Church of England*. Denial of this title was one of the many matters which were now made high treason, and for this offence the aged *Fisher, Bishop of Rochester*, and the learned and excellent *Sir Thomas More*—who had succeeded Wolsey as Chancellor, but had retired, not approving of the King's measures—besides a number of less notable persons, suffered death. By these proceedings, Henry became an agent in the *Reformation*, as that separation of part of Europe from the communion of the Roman see which took place in this century, is called. His part in it was more political than religious; and the mass of the nation was of the same mind—opposed to the power, but not disagreeing with the doctrines of Rome. The particular creed of *Martin Luther*, the German leader in this movement, did not take root in England, but the Swiss and French Reformers, who went further than he did, had much influence in the next reign. There was

various teaching among the Reformers, but it in general differed from that of Rome on the nature and number of the Sacraments, and on the obligations and duties of the clergy: the reverence paid to relics and images, and the use of Latin in the Church services, were disapproved of, and the study of the Scriptures was urged on every one. The men of "the new learning," as the Reformed doctrines were at first called, soon began to be distinguished by the name of *Protestants*. Those who adhered to the Pope were called *Roman Catholics*, *Romanists*, and *Papists*, and by themselves, simply *Catholics*. These names must at first be understood only as roughly marking two parties within the English Church, which had not yet formed themselves into distinct communions.

4. *The King's Wives*.—Anne Boleyn did not survive for many months the princess whom she had ousted. In May 1536, her marriage with the King having been declared null and void, she was beheaded on a charge, true or false, of unfaithfulness, leaving one daughter, *Elizabeth*, born in 1533. The day after her death, Henry married *Jane Seymour*, the daughter of a Wiltshire knight, who died the next year, shortly after the birth of her son *Edward*. Early in 1540 Henry took another wife, *Anne*, daughter of the Duke of Cleves. This match was brought about by his chief minister, *Thomas Cromwell*, who, being favourable to the Reformation, wished the King to ally himself with the Protestant princes of Germany. But unluckily Anne was not good-looking, and Henry found a pretext for having this marriage also declared null and void. Anne was well pensioned off, and spent the rest of her life in England; while the King, without delay, married *Katharine Howard*, niece of *Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk*. She, being found to have misconducted herself, was beheaded, Feb. 12, 1542; and the next year, the King married his sixth and last wife, *Katharine Parr*, widow of

Lord Latimer, a discreet woman, who kept her place as Henry's Queen until his death.

5. Administration of Cromwell.—Wolsey's power had passed to one who had been in his service, Thomas Cromwell, created successively *Baron Cromwell* and *Earl of Essex*. The King made him his vicegerent in ecclesiastical matters, and as during his administration all the monastic foundations were destroyed, he has been called "*the Hammer of the Monks*." This was not done all at once. First, in 1536, the smaller monasteries were dissolved by Act of Parliament, and their revenues given to the King. The North-country people, who clung to the old ways, broke out into revolt at this: the Yorkshire rebellion, led by a gentleman named *Robert Aske*, was quaintly called "*the Pilgrimage of Grace*." After the resistance was put down, the destruction of the larger religious houses soon followed, the abbots and priors being made to surrender them, as of free will, to the King, and an Act being passed in 1539 to confirm these and any future surrenders. Meanwhile, famous relics and images and shrines were destroyed, among them the rich shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, Henry proclaiming him to have been no saint, but rather a rebel and traitor. Of the vast wealth thus thrown into the King's hands, part went to found new bishoprics and part to fortify the coast; but much more was spent in lavish grants to the courtiers, whilst many of the abbey churches and buildings were pulled down for the sake of the lead and stone. On his side, the Pope, *Paul III.*, issued in 1538 a bull excommunicating and deposing Henry; and *Cardinal Reginald Pole*, a grandson of George Duke of Clarence, did his best to stir up foreign powers as well as English malcontents for the restoration by force of arms of the old state of ecclesiastical matters. Pole himself kept out of the way abroad, but many persons, including his elder brother Lord Montague, and later on his

aged mother, *Margaret Countess of Salisbury*, the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets, suffered death on charges of treasonable correspondence with him. It must not be thought, however, that the new learning was triumphant. Under the influence of Cranmer and Cromwell, the Reformers had indeed the satisfaction of seeing the Bible in English, which had hitherto been forbidden, placed in every church for all men to read. But in 1539 the party opposed to the Reformers, of which the leaders were the Duke of Norfolk and Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, obtained the passing of the Act of the "Six Articles," termed by the Protestants "the whip with six strings," which in great measure imposed the old doctrines. Cromwell was still seemingly in high favour when he suddenly fell, owing, it is believed, to Henry's dissatisfaction with Anne of Cleves. He was beheaded July 28, 1540, an Act of Parliament attainting him of treason and heresy having been passed, without his being heard in his defence. After the fall of Cromwell, Gardiner and his party came more into favour, and in 1543 an Act was passed forbidding the reading of the Bible by "the lower sort" of people—artificers, labourers, and the like; although later on the English Litany, translated perhaps by the King, and other prayers in the vulgar tongue, were set forth. Of the Protestants put to death in this reign, one of the most notable was Anne Ascue (daughter of Sir William Ascue), who was burned in Smithfield, in July, 1546.

6. Wars with Scotland and France.—In 1542 a war broke out with Scotland, whose King, *James V.*, being on the side of Rome, was not disposed towards alliance with his uncle Henry of England. A Scottish army crossed the Border, but whether from disaffection or from sudden panic, it fled before a few hundreds of Englishmen at *Solway Moss*. This disgrace broke the heart of James, who died not long

afterwards, leaving as his successor an infant daughter, *Mary Stuart*. Henry negotiated a marriage between the young Queen and his son *Edward*; but the treaty to that effect was soon broken off by the Scots, and Henry's attempts to enforce its fulfilment by sending his army to ravage and burn their country only set them the more against the proposed match. Edinburgh itself was sacked and fired by the English under *Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford*, brother of Queen Jane Seymour. Irritated by French intrigues in Scotland, Henry, in alliance with Charles V., also entered upon war with France, and passing over to that country in 1544, he took *Boulogne*, which it was afterwards agreed should be given back at the end of eight years, upon payment of a sum of money, besides the pension due by the treaty of 1525. The Scots were included in this peace.

7. *Death of Henry.*—Henry, who in his later years had become unwieldy and infirm, and suffered great pain, died Jan. 28, 1547. Nine days earlier, *Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey*, son of the Duke of Norfolk, and famous for his poetical talent, had been beheaded on a charge of treason. It is suspected that Surrey owed his death to the Seymours, who were now in favour with the King, and between whom and the Howards there was bitter jealousy. The Earl of Hertford was among the sixteen "executors" of King Henry's will, to whom the government during the minority of his son was entrusted; for Parliament had given Henry special powers with regard to the succession to his kingdom. In case Edward died childless, the crown was settled by Act of Parliament on the King's daughters, first on Mary and her heirs, then on Elizabeth and her heirs. After them, Henry bequeathed it to the descendants of his *younger* sister Mary.

8. *Defender of the Faith.*—Henry was the first of our

Kings who bore the title of "*Defender of the Faith*." This he obtained in 1521 from the Pope, *Leo X.*, in return for his having written a Latin treatise against Luther, and he and his successors still kept it after they had ceased, in papal eyes at least, to deserve it.

9. **Wales and Ireland.**—In 1536 *Wales* was incorporated with England, and the English laws and liberties were granted to its inhabitants. *Ireland*, where England had almost lost its authority, such as it was, was brought under a somewhat stronger rule; and in 1542 it was raised to the dignity of a *kingdom*, having been hitherto styled only a *lordship*.

10. **The Navy.**—Henry VIII. followed the example of his father in paying great attention to the navy. He constituted the Admiralty and Navy Office, and established the Trinity House and the dockyards at Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EDWARD VI.

Edward VI.; rule of the Protector Somerset (1)—beheading of Seymour; fall and beheading of Somerset (2)—the Duke of Northumberland; death of the King and alteration of the succession (3)—the Reformation (4).

1. **Edward VI., 1547-1553.**—The directions of Henry's will were at once infringed, the *Earl of Hertford* prevailing on his fellow-executors to make him *Protector* and governor of the young King his nephew. In accordance, it was said, with the late King's intentions, he was also created *Duke of Somerset*. Ambitious and rapacious, the Protector was

yet beloved by the common people, for whom he had kindly feelings. He was a good soldier, and in the first year of his rule made a savage raid into Scotland, in hopes of enforcing the marriage treaty ; and his victory at *Pinkie*, near Musselburgh, strengthened his influence at home, although he did not bring back the young Queen, who in the course of the next year was sent into France as the betrothed of the Dauphin, afterwards King *Francis II.* In religious matters Somerset gave his support to the advanced Reformers, who had hitherto been kept down, and when Parliament met, the "Six Articles" and the old statutes against the Lollards were repealed, as well as Henry's harsh enactments concerning treason. All *chantries* (where masses were said for the souls of particular persons) and colleges, saving only the cathedral chapters, the colleges in the universities, and a few others, were suppressed, and their property made over to the crown. The King, who was only ten years old when he came to the throne, being brought up by men of strong Protestant views, naturally held their opinions ; and in piety and religious zeal he was beyond his years. *Hugh Latimer*, the most outspoken of the Reformed preachers, the most fearless rebuker of iniquity in high places, had a pulpit erected for him in the King's garden, where young Edward would sit and listen to sermons an hour long. The boy received an excellent education, and being intelligent, quick, and thoughtful, he made great progress. Even before he was eight years old he had written Latin letters to his father.

2. **Fall of Somerset.**—The first enemy Somerset had to deal with was his own brother, *Thomas Lord Seymour of Sudeley, High Admiral of England*, an ambitious and unprincipled man, who had married the widowed Queen Katharine Parr. Aiming at supplanting the Protector, he was himself destroyed by a bill of attainder, without being

heard in his own defence, and was beheaded March 20, 1549. Somerset's rule did not last much longer, his government proving a failure both at home and abroad. The common people of the West rose in arms to demand the restoration of the mass, which had given place to the English Prayer-book; the Norfolk men, headed by Robert Ket, a tanner, broke out into insurrection against the land-owners who were enclosing commons and turning arable land into pasture. With the insurgents in the East the Protector somewhat sympathised, and it was afterwards charged against him that he had at first given them encouragement. His administration was wasteful; he had made a vast fortune out of the Church property, and had given offence by building for himself a splendid palace (on the site of which stands the present *Somerset House*), pulling down churches and the cloister of St. Paul's to supply materials, or make room for it. The other lords of the council joined together to get rid of him, and he was deposed from the Protectorate. One of the faults alleged against him was having left Boulogne, which was now threatened by the French, in a defenceless state; and, the country being unprepared to carry on a war for it, his successors were obliged to give it back, though they received in compensation only a fifth of the sum promised to Henry VIII., and virtually surrendered the annual pension. But to the last Somerset was beloved, especially as the administration of his successors proved worse than his had been, and when, in 1552, he was beheaded on a charge of conspiring against his rival *John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland*, and other lords of the council, great was the sorrow.

3. *The Duke of Northumberland.* — Northumberland, who took the management of affairs after Somerset's fall, was the son of that Dudley who had been the evil agent of Henry VII. He appears in reality to have had no

religion, but it suited him to set up for a thorough-going Protestant, and he was in consequence the idol of some of the more eager members of that party, although his government was tyrannical, and the people detested him. In 1553 the young King, who took much interest in public affairs, and whose coming of age was looked forward to with great hopes, fell dangerously ill. Northumberland foresaw that if the Lady Mary, who was known to disapprove of the doings of her brother's ministers in religious matters, came to the throne, his power would be at an end. He therefore persuaded the dying boy to alter the succession—a thing which he had no right to do without authority from Parliament—by shutting out his sisters, and settling the crown on his cousin *Lady Jane Grey*, daughter of Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk, and granddaughter of Mary Tudor and Charles Brandon. The young King, it is believed, was led to this by the fear that the Reformed faith would suffer if Mary reigned; Northumberland's motive was the hope of setting on the throne his fourth son, *Lord Guilford Dudley*, whom he had just married to Lady Jane. Shortly after, Edward died at Greenwich, July 6, his last prayer being that England might be preserved from "papisty." The common belief was that Northumberland had hastened his end by poison, but of this there is no sufficient proof.

4. *The Reformation.*—The Reformation made rapid progress in London and in the towns, especially in those on the sea-coast, but the country districts were slower in accepting it, and the government pushed it on both further and faster than suited the mass of the nation. Somerset early issued injunctions to put away the pictures and images in the churches; and the overthrow of crucifixes, the whitewashing of walls once adorned with paintings, and the destruction of stained glass, brought the change before the eyes of the simplest and most ignorant. Gardiner, Edmund Bonner,

Bishop of London, and other bishops who did not go all lengths with the party in power, were sent to prison ; and Northumberland filled their sees with Protestants, *Nicholas Ridley*, one of the ablest of the reforming clergy, succeeding Bonner in London. Out of the college and chantry property King Edward endowed grammar-schools at *Shrewsbury*, *Birmingham*, and other places ; but great part of the wealth gained by stripping the churches of their plate, and suppressing and diminishing the possessions of bishoprics, went into the hands of the men in power and their friends, to whom the Reformation was dear chiefly for the sake of the plunder. Bishop Ridley, preaching before Edward at Whitehall, took occasion to speak of the distressed condition of the London poor ; upon which the young King, sending for the Bishop, asked his advice as to what should be done. Ridley suggested consulting the corporation of the City, whose conduct in founding hospitals and schools already formed an honourable contrast to that of the government. The result was that the old house of the Grey Friars was chartered by the King as *Christ's Hospital* (vulgarly called *the Bluecoat School*) ; the Hospitals of *St. Thomas* and *St. Bartholomew* were re-founded and re-endowed, and the King also made over the royal house of *Bridewell* for a workhouse. The Prayer-book of the Church of England was compiled in this reign by Archbishop Cranmer, who took the old Latin services for his groundwork. The first complete Prayer-book was set forth in 1549, but many changes were made in 1552 under the influence of the more extreme Reformers ; and Acts for the "Uniformity of Service" forbade the use of any other religious rites. The Lady Mary firmly refused to have the new service used in her house, although, after the fall of Somerset, attempts were made to constrain her to conform to the established worship. Tolerance was not in those days looked upon as a virtue, even by Reformers.

A friend of Anne Ascue, Joan Bocher by name, who held opinions condemned by both of the two great religious parties, was in 1550 burned at the stake.

CHAPTER XXX.

MARY.

Mary; Lady Jane Grey (1)—the Spanish marriage; Wyatt's insurrection; beheading of Lady Jane; reconciliation with Rome (2)—persecution of the Protestants (3)—loss of Calais; death of Mary (4).

1. *Mary, 1553-1558.* Lady Jane Grey.—It had been intended to keep Edward's death a secret until the Ladies *Mary* and *Elizabeth* had been secured; but Mary had friends who gave her warning, and she at once made her escape into Norfolk. Her innocent rival, *Jane Grey*, was but sixteen, beautiful, accomplished, learned, and firm in the Reformed faith. She had known nothing of her father-in-law's ambitious schemes, and when he and four other lords came to her at Sion House, and knelt before her as their Queen, she received their information with astonishment and dismay. On the 10th July she was proclaimed; but her reign only lasted nine days. The nation was unanimous in regarding Mary as the rightful heir, and thousands gathered round her. She was proclaimed, amid general rejoicing, on the 19th July, and not a blow being struck for Jane, Mary entered London in triumph at the head of a band of friends. The Duke of Northumberland, whose ambition had thus been baffled, was tried and beheaded, and to the dismay of the Reformers, died declaring himself to be of the

ancient faith. *Simon Renard*, the ambassador of Charles V., whom Mary chiefly consulted, urged that Jane and her husband should also die, but the Queen as yet was pitiful, and they were only kept prisoners in the Tower.

2. *The Spanish Marriage*.—Unfortunately for her popularity, Mary was sincerely devoted to the Church of Rome. The nation indeed, discontented with the reforming statesmen of the last reign, was by no means Protestant at heart. The deprived bishops were restored, Gardiner was made Chancellor, the foreign preachers were ordered out of the country, and the mass was said as of old. But Mary wanted more than this; and whereas her people wished her to marry some English nobleman, she had made up her mind to take the Emperor's son, *Philip*, for her husband. Everyone agreed in disapproving of her choice. The heir of a foreign kingdom would have other interests than those of England to look to; and men feared lest the country should become a province of Spain. To hinder the marriage, *Sir Thomas Wyatt* raised a formidable insurrection among the Kentish men, who marched upon London with the intention of seizing upon the Queen. The enterprise however failed, and after a skirmish at Temple Bar, Wyatt gave himself up. The first to suffer for this rebellion were two captives who had had no part in it. Mary, being persuaded that her former lenity had encouraged rebellion, ordered the execution of Lady Jane and her young husband, Guilford Dudley, who were beheaded Feb. 12, 1554. Jane, with faith unshaken by the priest whom the Queen sent to convert her, died with gentle firmness. With more justice, Wyatt, as well as the Duke of Suffolk, who had been concerned in the insurrection, were put to death, and many other rebels shared their fate. The real design of the conspirators, it appeared, had been to raise to the throne the Lady Elizabeth and Edward Courtenay,

Earl of Devon, great-grandson of Edward IV., and so both were sent to the Tower. Renard, truly considering Elizabeth to be a dangerous rival, urged that she should be put to death ; but, as there was no evidence against her, she was only placed for a time in confinement at Woodstock. Philip of Spain came over in July, and the marriage took place. He was called King of England so long as the Queen lived, but, to the great vexation of himself and his wife, Parliament would not consent that he should be crowned, or that he should succeed Mary if she died childless. The next step after the marriage was to bring about a reconciliation with Rome. On the 30th November, 1554, the Lords and Commons met at Whitehall, went on their knees, and were absolved, together with the whole realm, from heresy and schism, by Cardinal Reginald Pole, who had come over as the Pope's legate. Yet the triumph was not so complete as it seemed. The Lollard statutes indeed were revived, the ecclesiastical legislation of Henry VIII. swept away ; but the Pope was obliged to consent that the holders of lands and goods taken from the Church should remain in possession. Mary herself, more zealous than her subjects, restored most of the Church property which was still in the hands of the Crown, and re-established some of the old religious houses.

3. *The Persecution.*—The statutes against heretics were not revived for nothing. The fire was first kindled for *John Rogers*, a canon of St. Paul's, who had worked upon the translation of the Bible ; and, by the end of the reign, two hundred persons, or more, men and women, had died at the stake. In justice it must be said that most men at this time believed it right to punish erroneous opinions—a belief which the Roman Catholics had the opportunity of fully carrying out. The English, averse from wholesale slaughter and loving courage, were more won to the Protestant cause by these

spectacles than by any arguments. It had been thought by many that the men of the new doctrines had no serious convictions ; but proving staunch on trial, they called forth a burst of admiration ; while Mary, and Bishop Bonner, who was one of the chief persecutors, have come down to posterity with the terrible epithet, "bloody," fixed upon them. Among the most notable of the martyrs were *John Hooper*, late Bishop of Worcester, *Ridley*, late Bishop of London, who had preached in defence of the Lady Jane's claim to the crown, and the aged *Latimer*. These last two were burned together at Oxford, October 16, 1555, *Latimer* exhorting his companion to "play the man," and saying, "We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out." Archbishop *Cranmer*, of less firm mould than the others, recanted ; but this humiliation did not save his life. Being brought to the stake, he abjured his recantation, and as an evidence of repentance, thrust the hand that had signed it, first into the flame. These were leading men, but among the laity the persecution did not strike high, labourers, artisans, tradesmen, private gentlemen at the most, being the usual victims.

4. *Loss of Calais*.—The marriage of Philip and Mary was unhappy. They were childless, and though Mary doted on her husband, he did not care for her ; she was a small, haggard, sickly woman, eleven years older than himself ; and he had married her only to suit his father's policy. England, where he was regarded with suspicion and hatred, offered him no attractions ; and when he left it to become, by the abdication of his father, King of Spain and sovereign of the Netherlands, he had little inducement to return. After this he only came over once for a few months to urge the Queen to join him in war against France ; she consented, and the result was disastrous. The government had neglected to repair the defences of Calais, or to keep a

sufficient garrison in it; and in January 1558 it was taken by the French. It was no real loss; but it was a terrible blow to English pride, and the Queen is reported to have said, "When I die, Calais will be found written on my heart." The unfortunate Mary, neglected by her husband, broken down in health, and having lost the love of her people, died November 17, 1558. Her death was followed within twenty-four hours by that of Cardinal Pole. From that time the power of Rome in England was at an end.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth (1)—*the Reformed Church; Roman Catholics and Puritans; Ireland* (2)—*flight of the Queen of Scots to England; her captivity and death* (3)—*struggle with Spain; Sir Philip Sidney; naval adventurers; Walter Raleigh; Francis Drake; defeat of the Armada* (4)—*the Earl of Essex; rebellion of Tyrone* (5)—*monopolies* (6)—*death of Elizabeth* (7)—*East India Company* (8).

1. **Elizabeth, 1558-1603.**—*Elizabeth* was welcomed by all when, in her twenty-sixth year, she succeeded to the crown. It soon appeared that she intended to support a moderate Reformation, although Philip supposed her principles to be still so unsettled that, soon after her accession, he offered her his hand on condition of her conforming to his Church. After some delay she refused him, as indeed in the end she did every one of her royal and noble suitors, although she gave hopes to many, and was earnestly pressed by Parliament to marry. She loved her country, although she had inherited her father's imperious and despotic nature; her chief faults as a ruler were irresolution and want of openness; her private

weaknesses—personal vanity and a desire for flattery—might afford food for the ridicule of her enemies, but they did not prevent her being a great sovereign. She chose sagacious advisers, and, though she made favourites, she never suffered them to obtain dominion over her. Her chief minister was *William Cecil*, afterwards *Baron Burghley* and Lord High Treasurer, a wise statesman to whose counsels much of the success of her reign is to be attributed. *Sir Francis Walsingham*, and *Robert Cecil*, second son of Lord Burghley, are also notable among her advisers.

2. **Religious Affairs.**—The Reformed Church of England was now firmly established, and the supremacy of the Crown was restored by Act of Parliament, though without the title of Head of the Church. Almost all Mary's bishops were deprived for refusing to take the *oath of supremacy*, which declared the Queen to be supreme governor in all ecclesiastical and spiritual things as well as temporal; and Bonner was kept in prison for the rest of his days. Towards the end of 1559 *Matthew Parker*, a learned and prudent man, was consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury. The second Prayer-book of Edward, with some alterations, was restored, and a new *Act of Uniformity* forbade the use by a minister of any other, and imposed a fine on those who absented themselves from church. This bore heavily on the Roman Catholics, of whom after a while many withdrew beyond sea, and became a source of danger to Elizabeth; while, in retaliation, those at home were harassed and persecuted under laws of increasing severity. Elizabeth's determination to make all her subjects conform to the rites she established, was resisted, not only by the Roman Catholics, but by the extreme Protestants or "*Puritans*," as they came to be nicknamed, from their desiring a simpler and purer form of worship; that is to say, one farther removed from that of Rome. Even the Reformation under Edward had not gone

far enough for them, still less this of the Queen, who retained ceremonies and practices which gave them great offence. The Puritan or non-conformist clergy and their friends did not wish to leave the Church, although they strove to mould it to their own views, and at last to alter its government, for many of them began to disapprove of *episcopacy* or government by bishops. By degrees too they took to holding religious meetings of their own. There sprang up also in the latter part of the reign a sect afterwards famous under the name of *Independents*, which avowedly separated from the Established Church. The chief instrument employed to force the Puritans into conformity was the *High Commission Court*, appointed by Elizabeth, under the powers of the Act of Supremacy, to inquire into and punish by spiritual censure, fine, imprisonment, and deprivation, heresies, schisms, absence from church, and such like offences. Troublesome as the Puritans were to Elizabeth, they were staunch in their loyalty; for it was no time for any Protestant to be disloyal, when the old faith and the reformed were struggling for life or death throughout Europe, and Philip, the mightiest prince of the age, was on the side of Rome. Elizabeth became the hope of the Reformed, and the Puritans forgave her their own wrongs in consideration of the help she gave their Protestant brethren in France, Scotland, and the Netherlands. In *Ireland* similar changes were made, but there the Church in its new shape took no root, even the settlers of the *pale*, or English district, being little inclined towards it, and scarcely any trouble being bestowed upon winning them over, otherwise than by force of law.

3. *Mary Stuart*.—The person generally looked upon as Elizabeth's heir was Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots and widow of Francis II., King of France. Though left out of Henry the Eighth's will (which however some believed not to have

been signed with the King's own hand, and therefore to be worthless), she was the nearest heir, being the granddaughter of his elder sister Margaret. Some of the Roman Catholics regarded her as rightful Queen of England already, and, when in France, she had taken that title. She was one of the most fascinating women that ever lived, but, being a strong Roman Catholic, she did not suit the Protestants among her people. She also gave them ground to accuse her of great crimes, on account of which they forced her to resign her crown to her infant son, *James VI.*, in the murder of whose father, *Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley*, she was believed to have been an accomplice. They placed her in captivity, from which she escaped, and flying to England, threw herself on Elizabeth's protection, May 16, 1568. But, contrary to her expectation, the English government detained her as a state prisoner, in which position she became as dangerous to Elizabeth as Elizabeth had once been to her own sister. Round the beautiful captive gathered a succession of conspiracies against Elizabeth, formed by Roman Catholics who looked to Spain for help. *Thomas Percy* and *Charles Neville, Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland*, raised a Roman Catholic rebellion in the North, which was put down with extreme severity. *Pope Pius V.* in 1570 published a bull absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance, which in the end did more harm to the Pope's friends than to the Queen. *Seminary priests* (that is, priests from colleges established abroad for English Roman Catholics) and Jesuits poured into the kingdom, not only to keep up their own worship, but, as was generally believed, to stir up their disciples against the Queen. Many of these missionaries, after being tortured for the purpose of wringing out information, were put to the death of traitors. Torture was always contrary to law, but it had nevertheless begun to be employed in the course of the preceding century, and it was in

common use under the Tudors. Meanwhile the Puritans, who had a majority in the House of Commons, from which Roman Catholics were kept out by the oath of supremacy exacted from the members, began to call for the death of Mary. After she had been about nineteen years a captive, a plot, with which Walsingham through spies became early acquainted, was formed by *Anthony Babington* and many other young Roman Catholics against Elizabeth's life. A statute passed in 1585 had specially provided for the case of plots being made on behalf of any person claiming the crown, and had prescribed a mode of trial before a commission of peers, privy councillors, and judges. Mary was now charged with being accessory to Babington's plot, and was accordingly put on her trial before such a commission. She was condemned, and beheaded, Feb. 8, 1587, in the hall of Fotheringhay Castle. In the preceding year she had sent word to Philip that she had bequeathed her prospective rights upon England to him, having set aside her son as a Protestant.

4. **The Struggle with Spain.**—Philip had at first striven to gain Elizabeth's friendship, but the Queen being gradually drawn on by her more Protestant ministers and subjects, Spain and England entered upon a course of bickering, and underhand acts of hostility: Elizabeth aiding Philip's revolted subjects, the Protestants of the Netherlands; Philip encouraging the malcontents both in England and Ireland. At last the Queen, having openly allied herself with the people of the Netherlands, who had formed themselves into the commonwealth of the *United Provinces*, sent out to their aid an expedition, commanded by her favourite, the handsome, polished, but worthless *Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester*. This expedition did not effect anything; an engagement before Zutphen is memorable, because it cost the life of *Sir*

Philip Sidney, who was the darling of the nation for his talents and his virtues. It is told of him that having left the field mortally wounded he asked for some drink. But as he lifted the bottle to his lips, he saw a dying soldier, who was being carried by, glance wistfully at it. Sidney gave it him untasted, saying, "Thy necessity is yet greater than mine." The strife with Spain was in great measure fomented and kept up by a set of men much of the stamp of the old sea-kings, a passion for maritime adventure having taken possession of England. *Martin Frobisher* and *John Davis* have left their names to the Straits which they discovered while seeking for the North-west passage. *John Hawkins*, of Plymouth, was the first Englishman, or nearly so, who engaged in the negro-slave trade, in which so little shame was seen that the Queen granted him a Moor as his crest in memory of it. *Walter Raleigh*, of Devonshire, one of Elizabeth's favourites, attempted, though without success, to plant a colony on the coasts of North America; and by his colonists the practice of smoking tobacco was introduced into England. To Raleigh, according to the common tale, belongs the credit of having first planted in Ireland the potato, a native production of America. Most famous of all is *Francis Drake*, also of Devonshire, who started in life as an apprentice in a Channel coaster. Drake was the first man who sailed round the world in one voyage. He and most of his fellows were a strange mixture of explorer, pirate, and Protestant knight-errant. To spoil and burn the Spanish towns in the New World, to waylay and capture the gold and silver laden ships that sailed to Spain, was at once profitable and virtuous in their eyes. When war was openly entered upon, Drake became a regularly commissioned officer, and in 1587, when Philip was known to be preparing to invade England, he entered Cadiz harbour and destroyed the ships and great part of the stores

there ; in his own phrase, he "sing'd the Spanish King's beard." The threatened invasion, however, was actually attempted the next year. A mighty naval force, known by its Spanish name of *Armada*, that is, Fleet, was collected at Lisbon, and the flower of Spain joined in the enterprise, which, being undertaken at the instance of the Pope, *Sixtus V.*, was looked on as a holy war. Philip's general, *Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma*, had another fine army ready in the neighbourhood of Nieuport and Dunkirk, for whose protection on its passage to England the Armada, commanded by the *Duke of Medina Sidonia*, was to make its way through the Channel to the North Foreland. *Charles Lord Howard of Effingham* commanded the English fleet, and with him were Drake, and Hawkins, and Frobisher, and others like them. Only some of the vessels belonged to the navy ; many were furnished by various cities, merchants, and private people. London is said to have supplied double the number of ships and men requested of it. Two armies were collected, one at Tilbury under Leicester, the other to defend the Queen ; and the mass of the English Roman Catholics came forward as zealously as anybody else, for though they might have invited foreign aid for Mary of Scotland's sake, they were not minded deliberately to make their country over to Philip. On the 19th July, Howard, who was at Plymouth, learned that the Armada—about a hundred and fifty sail—was off the Cornish coast ; and coming out with about sixty or seventy ships, he hung upon the enemy's rear, fresh vessels joining him daily until he mustered a hundred and forty. Medina Sidonia, fighting as he sailed along, anchored on the 27th in Calais roads. To drive him out, at midnight on the 28th eight ships were fired, and sent drifting with wind and tide among the Spaniards, who, seized with a panic, put to sea in disorder. At day-break they were attacked by Howard, Drake, and Lord Henry

Seymour, and though the Spaniards fought gallantly, they were completely at disadvantage; in seamanship and gun-practice they were inferior to their adversaries, and their floating castles were no match for the active little English vessels. Had not the Queen's ill-timed parsimony kept her fleet insufficiently supplied with powder, the Armada would have been destroyed. As it was, Sidonia fled away northwards, Howard and Drake, with part of the fleet, clinging to him till their scanty provisions began to run short. Even then the misfortunes of the Armada were only begun; the gale rose to a storm, scattering it about in the seas of Scotland and Ireland, which were almost unknown to the Spaniards, and only fifty-four vessels lived to creep shattered home. The English rejoiced, though modestly, over their success. To them and to all Protestants it seemed that Heaven had fought for them.

5. **The Earl of Essex.**—Leicester dying in the midst of the rejoicing, was succeeded in the Queen's favour by *Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex*, whose father, *Walter Earl of Essex*, is noted for an adventurous but unsuccessful attempt to subdue and colonize Ulster. Young Essex, gallant but headstrong, acquitted himself brilliantly as the leader of an expedition which took the town of *Cadiz*; but he was not fitted for the Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland, to which he was appointed that he might subdue the rebel *O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone*. The Queen found fault with his conduct, upon which Essex, believing that he was being undermined by his rivals at court, and presuming on Elizabeth's fondness for him, left his post unbidden, and abruptly presented himself before her. But Elizabeth, not accepting his excuses, sent out Lord Mountjoy to bring Ireland into order, and inflicted humiliations upon Essex which his haughty spirit could not bear. With a view to removing the Queen's advisers by force, he made a wild attempt to

raise an insurrection among the Londoners. He was found guilty of treason, and beheaded in 1601, at the age of thirty-three. Tyrone, notwithstanding that an armament was sent from Spain to his aid, was reduced by Mountjoy to submission, and received a pardon.

6. **Monopolies.**—A great abuse of the time was the practice of the Crown to grant to favoured persons *monopolies*, that is, the exclusive right of dealing in some particular article. Thus Essex had had a monopoly of sweet wines, and had been much aggrieved when, during his disgrace, the Queen had refused to continue it to him, saying that “a restive horse must be broken into the ring by stinting him of his provender.” In 1601 a list of these monopolies was read out in Parliament. “Is not bread among the number?” said a member, adding a prediction that at any rate it would be there soon. Elizabeth, though imperious, knew how to yield gracefully, and seeing what a ferment was being raised, she sent word that she would revoke or suspend her obnoxious patents.

7. **Death of Elizabeth.**—Queen Elizabeth died at Richmond, in the seventieth year of her age, March 24, 1603. Robert Cecil, her chief minister, affirmed that she declared by signs that *King James VI.* of Scotland should succeed her. This is not certain, but at any rate James was proclaimed King of England.

8. **The East India Company.**—On the 31st December, 1600, a Charter of privileges was granted to a recently formed company of London merchants trading to the East Indies. This was the famous *East India Company*, and from this sprang the British dominion in India.

CHAPTER XXXII.

JAMES I.

James I. (1)—*Raleigh sentenced to death; imprisonment and death of Arabella Stuart* (2)—*Puritans; Roman Catholics; Gunpowder Plot* (3)—*James's favourites; execution of Raleigh; strife between King and Parliament; Bacon; the proposed Spanish marriage* (4)—*death of James; his children; Great Britain* (5)—*plantation of Ulster; baronets* (6)—*colonies and voyages* (7)—*translations of the Bible* (8)—*learning and literature* (9)—*poetry and the drama* (10).

1. **House of Stuart.** **James I., 1603-1625.**—According to the will of Henry VIII. the crown should have gone to the descendants of Mary Duchess of Suffolk, but *James VI. of Scotland*, son of Mary Stuart and her second husband Lord Darnley, was the nearest heir by birth, the nation was willing to accept him, and after his coronation an Act of Parliament was passed declaring his right. His birth being the strongest point in his favour, it became his interest to encourage the new doctrine of "*divine right*," that is, the belief that an hereditary prince derives his authority from Heaven alone, and that therefore no laws can limit it, or take it from him. These dignified pretensions accorded little with the character and appearance of James; for he was ungainly in person, unkingly in bearing, so timorous that he shuddered at a drawn sword; and though learned, he had few qualities of a ruler. He had been brought up a Presbyterian, but became attached to the English Church on finding that its clergy treated him more respectfully than the Scots ministers had ever done. "No bishop, no King" was

then his phrase, and he soon learned to hate the Puritans, thinking them slack friends to monarchy.

2. *Arabella Stuart*.—In the first year of this reign, Sir Walter Raleigh was condemned to death on a charge of having conspired to raise *Arabella Stuart*, first cousin of James, to the throne. He was however reprieved, and spent thirteen years as a prisoner in the Tower. Arabella, having had no share in the plot, was unmolested until eight years later, when she privately married William Seymour, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk. This union of two possible pretenders to the throne gave alarm ; and Arabella was illegally shut up in the Tower, where she became insane and died.

3. *Puritans and Roman Catholics. The Gunpowder Plot*.—Early in 1604, a conference between dignitaries of the Church and leading Puritan divines was held before the King at Hampton Court. Some slight alterations were made in the Prayer-book, and a new translation of the Bible was ordered. This was finished in 1611, and is still our *Authorized Version*. The Puritans were not satisfied, as indeed nothing short of excluding from the Church all doctrines but their own would have satisfied them ; but the way in which they were brow-beaten by the King and the bishops was not likely to soothe them. As for the Roman Catholics, who had formed hopes of some indulgence from James, they were embittered by fresh severities, for which a fearful vengeance was devised. Catesby, a Roman Catholic gentleman, conceived the plan of blowing up the Parliament House with gunpowder on the day—Nov. 5, 1605—the King was to open the session. King, Lords, and Commons thus disposed of, Catesby and his confederates were to raise the Roman Catholic gentry, and proclaim one of the King's younger children ; as the eldest, Prince Henry, would, it was expected, have accompanied his father, and perished with him. A cellar under the House of

Lords was hired, and barrels of gunpowder there laid, the task of firing the mine being deputed to one of the thirteen conspirators, *Guido* or *Guy Faukes*, a soldier of fortune. Everything was ready, when *Lord Mounteagle*, also a Roman Catholic, was warned by an anonymous letter to keep away from Parliament. This he showed to Cecil, then *Earl of Salisbury*; investigation followed, and about midnight, on the eve of the 5th November, Faukes was seized in the cellar. On hearing of this, the other conspirators fled, but were soon killed or taken; the survivors, including Faukes, were executed. Catesby's crime bore bitter fruit for those he had hoped to serve, as the "*Gunpowder Treason*" deepened the hatred felt for the Church of Rome by the English in general. New and more severe laws were made against "Popish recusants," (that is, those who refused to come to church,) upon whom was imposed a new oath of allegiance, renouncing in the strongest terms the doctrine that princes excommunicated by the Pope might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. This oath caused a division among the Roman Catholics, some taking it, others, at the bidding of *Pope Paul V.*, refusing to do so. As James was not disposed to persecution, the laws against the Roman Catholics were, much to the dissatisfaction of the Puritans, not always executed.

4. **Government of James.**—After the death of Salisbury, a Scottish favourite, *Robert Carr*, created *Earl of Somerset*, became all-powerful for some years. After him the royal favour passed to *George Villiers*, afterwards *Duke of Buckingham*, a handsome young Englishman, whom James nicknamed "Steenie," and permitted to treat him with rude familiarity. Meanwhile the King's rule did not please his subjects. His foreign policy was unpopular; for, instead of supporting Protestantism abroad, he was on friendly terms with Spain. In 1616, Raleigh had been let out of

prison with leave to go on an expedition to Guiana, there to open a gold mine he averred he knew of. The expedition failed; he came into conflict with the Spaniards, who, not without reason, complained of him as a pirate; and on his return he was beheaded, not for any fresh fault he had committed, but on his old sentence. The nation was indignant, for he was looked on as a sacrifice to the vengeance of Spain. Neither did James manage home affairs well; he was ever at variance with his Parliaments, they striving after more freedom, he aiming at absolute power. The Parliament of 1614 has had the epithet of "addled" fixed upon it, because ere it had passed a single Act the King dissolved it in anger; after which he supplied himself with money by a "benevolence." In 1621 a Parliament met which boldly attacked abuses and corruption; the Lord Chancellor, *Francis Bacon*, famous as one of our greatest philosophers, was charged by it with taking bribes, and thereupon dismissed from office with ignominy. But when the Commons ventured to touch foreign affairs, the King, telling them not to meddle, at once dissolved the Parliament. One of his most unpopular schemes was the intended marriage of his son *Charles Prince of Wales* to the *Infanta* or Princess *Maria* of Spain. The Prince, accompanied by the favourite Buckingham, travelled in disguise to Madrid to see his intended bride, and a marriage treaty was concluded, but, to the great joy of the English, it was broken off.

5. **Death of James.**—King James died of ague, March 27, 1625. He was the author of many works in prose and verse, notably of a treatise against the practice of smoking tobacco. His wife was *Anne of Denmark*, and his children were *Henry Frederick, Prince of Wales*, who died in 1612; *Charles*, who succeeded him; and *Elizabeth*, who married *Frederick V. Elector Palatine*. As the insurgent Bohemians chose her husband for their King, she is known as the *Queen*

of *Bohemia*. James took the title of *King of Great Britain*, and had a national flag devised, on which the crosses of the patron saints of England and Scotland, *St. George* and *St. Andrew*, were blended—the first “*Union Jack* ;”—but England and Scotland, though they had for the time fallen to one and the same sovereign, remained otherwise entirely separate.

6. *Plantation of Ulster*.—A few years after the King's accession, the Earl of Tyrone, together with another great chieftain of the north of Ireland, *O'Donnel Earl of Tyrconnel*, having engaged, or being suspected of having engaged, in a conspiracy, fled to foreign parts, and were attainted of treason. On their outlawry, and the rebellion in 1608 of a third chieftain, *O'Dogherty*, the greater part of *Ulster* was forfeited to the Crown, which thereupon granted out land in it to Scotch and English settlers, and these newcomers soon made it the most flourishing district in Ireland. The system of “planting” was extended to Leinster; but, with apparent good, much evil was done. Many of the native owners were turned out, and several *septs*, or clans, were transplanted to other parts of the island. A sense of injustice rankled in the hearts of the Irish; and they sighed for their old lords, tyrants and oppressors though these had been. In order, so he professed, to raise funds for the protection of the *Ulster* settlers, James devised a new title of honour, that of *Baronet*, and required of all who received it, a sum of money, as much as would support thirty soldiers for three years.

7. *Colonies and Voyages*.—In 1607, some adventurers sent out by a London Company of Merchants founded, in Virginia, *James Town*, the first permanent settlement of Englishmen in North America. In 1620, a number of Puritans, who had been driven from England to Holland by the laws against non-conformity, sailed from Delft Haven

for North America, and settled in *New England*. These are the most ancient of those colonies which afterwards, throwing off the rule of the mother-country, formed the *United States of North America*. Fresh efforts were made in this reign to find a north-west passage. *Henry Hudson* in 1610 sailed through the Strait and discovered the Bay since called by his name. In those seas he perished, for his crew, which had suffered much from want of provisions, mutinied, and sent him and eight of his followers adrift in an open boat. Nothing more was ever heard of them. Further discoveries were made by *Thomas Button*, the first navigator who reached the eastern coast of America through Hudson's Strait, and by *Bylot* and *Baffin*, who discovered and penetrated to the most northern extremity of *Baffin's Bay*.

8. *Translations of the Bible*.—High among the early English Reformers stands *William Tyndal*, who, settling at Antwerp, devoted himself to translating the Scriptures, which he printed with side-notes and commentaries of his own. During the Primacy of *Warham*, Cranmer's predecessor, efforts were made to stop the circulation of Tyndal's Testament by publicly burning in London all the copies which could be bought up—a proceeding which only supplied Tyndal with the means of sending forth fresh editions. By and by there came a change in England, and the Bible which, under Thomas Cromwell's administration, was placed in the churches, was a compilation of Tyndal's scattered translations, collected, edited, and completed by his friend *Miles Coverdale*. In that same year Tyndal came to his end, being put to death near Antwerp as a heretic. *Coverdale's Bible* served as the basis for all succeeding translations. Upon this and other versions of the reign of Henry VIII. was founded the *Bishops' Bible*, edited by Archbishop Parker; and although in the preparation of the

present Authorized Version extraordinary care was bestowed upon its translation from the originals, the eminent divines employed on the task adhered as closely as possible to the language and style of its predecessors.

9. *Learning and Literature.*—In the sixteenth century, classical learning began to flourish in England, the study of the ancient Greek language, till then almost unknown, being introduced. *William Grocyn*, who having acquired a knowledge of Greek in Italy, had begun to teach it at Oxford about the end of the preceding century, is honoured as "*the patriarch of English learning*." He and a small knot of like-minded men in 1510 brought over the great scholar of the Netherlands, *Erasmus*, to teach at Cambridge. *Thomas Linacre*, eminent in medicine, who was the first president of the *College of Physicians*, also held high rank among men of learning. *Sir Thomas More*, a pupil of Grocyn, is the author of *Utopia*, a work in Latin, descriptive of an imaginary commonwealth, from which the epithet of "utopian" is now applied to fanciful political schemes. Although education was not general, yet in a select circle of scholarly taste or exalted rank the standard was high. Lady Jane Grey, who spoke, as well as wrote, Greek, Latin, Italian, and French, and also understood Hebrew and Arabic, was especially renowned for her learning. When found at home reading Plato, while the rest of the household were out hunting, she accounted for her love of books by saying that her parents were so harsh and severe, that she was never happy except when with her tutor, who was always gentle and pleasant. Henry VIII., himself a good scholar, had his children carefully taught. *Sir John Cheke*, one of the tutors of Edward VI., was the first professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. He was a Protestant, but in Mary's reign recanted to save himself from burning, and pined to death with shame at his own weakness. Queen

Elizabeth could speak Greek fairly, Latin fluently, and French and Italian as readily as her mother tongue ; and these acquirements she kept up after she had ascended the throne, reading with her tutor Roger Ascham for some hours daily. Among the learned men who graced the reigns of Elizabeth and James was *William Camden*, author of the *Britannia*, a survey of the British Isles written in Latin, who founded in the University of Oxford an historical lecture, still called after him the *Camden* professorship. *Francis Bacon*, successively created *Baron Verulam* and *Viscount St. Albans*, who has already been spoken of as Lord Chancellor, stands intellectually, though not morally, among the greatest of mankind. The philosophical work on which his fame rests is in Latin ; but to ordinary readers he is best known by his English *Essays*, a name which he was the first to give to that species of composition. The finest of the Elizabethan prose authors was *Richard Hooker*, Master of the Temple, who defended the established form of Church government against the Puritans. Two of Elizabeth's favourite courtiers held literary rank—*Sir Philip Sidney*, author of the *Arcadia*, a half chivalrous, half pastoral romance, which, though to modern taste tedious, was long exceedingly popular ; and *Sir Walter Raleigh*, who, while a prisoner in the Tower, employed himself in the laborious undertaking of writing a History of the World. This however he never finished. Much both of the poetry and prose of the time is deformed by a strained and fantastic style, of which the great master was *John Lyly*, from whose novel of *Euphues* it has got its name of *Euphuism*.

10. Poetry and the Drama.—The ill-fated *Earl of Surrey*, who died on the scaffold in 1547, was the first to introduce *blank verse*. Although he is more to be admired for his taste and polish than for genius, he was the leader of a school of poets who followed Italian models. Of these

was the great Elizabethan poet, *Edmund Spenser*, author of the *Faery Queen*, a long though unfinished tale of chivalrous adventure, veiling a religious and political allegory. The age was fertile in poets, and some of the most spirited of the English ballads belong to the reigns of the Queen and her successor. Dramatic art was now making an advance. Of the earliest attempts, the *mysteries* or *miracle plays*, we have specimens as old as the time of Edward III. These were rude representations of Biblical stories, acted in churchyards or streets, which, in the days of few books and little general education, were thought useful for teaching Scripture history to the people. Next came the *moral plays* or allegorical dramas, which, in the time of Henry VIII., were distinguished by the introduction of a character called the *Vice*, who played a part much like that of Punch in the puppet-shows. The first regular English comedy was composed probably as early as the reign of Henry VIII., by *Nicholas Udal*, master first of Eton, and afterwards of Westminster School, who was wont to write plays for his scholars to act. *Ralph Roister Doister* was the uncouth name of this piece, which gave a picture of the manners of the London gallants and citizens. Under Elizabeth the taste spread, and a school of playwrights sprang up. These early dramatists however are almost forgotten, having been eclipsed by the glory of *William Shakspeare*, the greatest name in English literature. Little is known of his life beyond the mere outline. Born at Stratford-upon-Avon in 1564, he became an actor and playwright, and also held a share in the Blackfriars theatre, which was built in 1575. Retiring in his latter days to his native town, he there died in 1616. In the deep knowledge of human nature which his dramas display, no other has ever approached him; and he is further distinguished by his healthy moral tone, and by the national spirit, ardent though without being narrow,

which pervades his historical plays. Other dramatists of high repute were *Benjamin*, or, as he is always called, *Ben Jonson*, and *Francis Beaumont* and *John Fletcher*, who wrote for the most part in concert, and so identified themselves with each other that it is impossible to distinguish their respective shares in the plays bearing their joint names. After his comrade's death, Fletcher is said to have been sometimes assisted by *Philip Massinger*, another of the great dramatic poets of the school of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Massinger died in the reign of Charles I.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CHARLES I.

Charles I.; Henrietta Maria; Petition of Right; murder of Buckingham (1)—*Wentworth and Laud; the Star Chamber* (2)—*Ship-money* (3)—*the Long Parliament; beheading of Strafford* (4)—*the Irish Rebellion; the Five Members; the Civil War; Presbyterians and Independents; Oliver Cromwell; battles of Marston Moor and Naseby; Charles given up by the Scots* (5)—*the Covenant; beheading of Laud* (6)—*the Army; second Civil War* (7)—*"Pride's Purge;" the High Court of Justice* (8)—*trial and beheading of the King* (9)—*his children* (10).

1. **Charles I., 1625-1649.** The *Petition of Right*.—Shortly after his accession the young King married *Henrietta Maria*, daughter of the great Henry IV. of France—an alliance which was not liked, as the bride was a Roman Catholic. Charles himself, dignified in his bearing, well conducted, and religious, was welcomed as a great improvement on his predecessor; but events soon showed that his father's

maxims of arbitrary authority had sunk deep into his heart. The strife between King and Parliament began at once ; for while the King wanted money, the Parliament wanted redress of grievances and the removal of the favourite Buckingham. After dissolving two Parliaments within the space of a year, Charles had recourse to arbitrary methods of raising money, until a petty war with France so increased his difficulties that he had to summon a third Parliament. This, by granting him five subsidies, obtained his assent to their *Petition of Right*, by which the recent illegal practices—arbitrary taxes and imprisonment, forced billeting of soldiers upon the people, exercise of martial law—were condemned (June 1628). Emboldened by victory, the Commons remonstrated against Buckingham as the cause of the national calamities ;—words which had a terrible effect, for a few months later the Duke was stabbed to death at Portsmouth by one *John Felton*, who thought by this crime to do his country service. Despite the *Petition of Right*, Charles still levied of his sole authority certain duties called tonnage and poundage. The Commons voted that whoever should pay them should be accounted an enemy to the liberties of England, and upon this the King again dissolved Parliament. Some of the members were sent to prison, where one of the most distinguished among them, *Sir John Eliot*, died.

2. *Wentworth and Laud*.—Charles, now resolving to govern without parliaments, found two ministers to serve his purpose—*Thomas Viscount Wentworth*, and *William Laud, Bishop of London*, afterwards *Archbishop of Canterbury*. These two laboured zealously together to make their master absolute—a scheme which they spoke of among themselves by the term of "*Thorough*." Wentworth was first made President of the Council of the North, a tribunal which had been set up by Henry VIII. after the putting down of the insurrection of 1536. Lord Wentworth now obtained

for it almost boundless power over the northern counties ; then he was removed to Ireland, which he governed on equally despotic principles ; while Laud devoted himself to forcing the Puritans into conformity to the Church. Ready instruments were found in the High Commission and *Star Chamber* courts, the latter being a court of members of the King's council which had by degrees usurped a power of punishing anything that could be called a contempt of the King's authority. Neither of these courts had been invented by Charles, but, extensive as their power had been before his accession, they now stretched it still further, and became still more harsh and inquisitorial. Puritans who had written books held libellous were objects of special rigour, and the Star Chamber, not content with fine and imprisonment, inflicted cruel and shameful punishments, which only served to excite admiration for the fortitude of the victims and hatred of the government.

3. *Ship-Money*.—Meanwhile, after various devices for raising a revenue had been resorted to, a levy of “ship-money” (so called because it was professedly for the support of a fleet), which in former days had been occasionally levied in time of war in the maritime counties, was made upon every shire. *John Hampden*, a country gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused, as did also some others, to pay his share. On the matter being tried, the majority of the judges decided against him ; but the arguments in favour of the lawfulness of the tax were so weak, that Charles lost more than he gained by his victory, while Hampden's courage raised him high in the estimation of his countrymen.

4. *The Long Parliament*.—In 1637, the year in which the decision in favour of ship-money was given, the Scots were driven into rebellion by an attempt to force upon them a liturgy like that of England. Charles, in 1639, marched

against the insurgents, but, unable to do anything with an empty treasury and disaffected troops, he was reduced to patch up a treaty. In hopes of obtaining money, he called, early in 1640, a Parliament, which he soon dissolved; but by the renewal of the Scottish war and the invasion of England by a Scottish army, he was that same year constrained to summon another, since famed as "*the Long Parliament.*" By the Commons, Wentworth, now *Earl of Strafford*, and Laud were at once impeached of treason. Strafford was brought to trial, but after some time the Commons changed their course, and a bill of attainder was passed, to which Charles in tears gave his assent. The foremost in these proceedings was the great orator *John Pym*, one of the leaders of the popular party. Strafford was beheaded May 12th, 1641, and with him fell the system of government he had endeavoured to establish. The Star Chamber, the High Commission, and the Council of the North were abolished, and the levies of ship-money were declared to have been illegal. The Parliament also secured itself by an Act providing that it should not be dissolved without its own consent.

5. *The Civil War.*—Although Charles had now yielded so much that many began to turn towards him, he was still mistrusted by the Puritan party. When, in the autumn of 1641, the Irish rose in rebellion and slaughtered the Ulster colonists, some suspected, though unjustly, that Charles had himself stirred up this outbreak, which soon became a general insurrection of the Irish Roman Catholics. The King's own violence was his ruin. Attended by armed men, he went to the House of Commons, there to seize Hampden, Pym, and three other leading members of the Opposition, whom he had charged with treason. Warning having been timely conveyed, the accused had withdrawn, and thus his attempt failed. Six days later Charles fled from London, and after

his refusal to comply with the Parliament's new demand that the control of the militia should be given up to it, men saw plainly that a civil war was at hand. *Sir John Hotham*, governor of the strong town of *Hull*, where there was a large magazine of arms, shut its gates against the King when he demanded admittance ; and his conduct was approved by the Parliament, which proceeded to call out the militia. Several moderately disposed members of the Lords and Commons withdrew to the King ; both parties made ready to draw the sword, and on the 22nd August, 1642, Charles set up his standard at Nottingham, and called on his subjects to rally round him. The two parties in this struggle are distinguished as *Royalists* and *Parliamentarians*, or more familiarly as *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. The last name is said by some to have been given because the extreme Puritans cropped their hair short, in opposition to the prevailing fashion of wearing it long. *Robert Earl of Essex*, son of Elizabeth's favourite, took command of the Parliament army, and opposed the King in person at *Edgehill* in Warwickshire, where, on the 23rd October, an indecisive battle, the first important action of the war, was fought. On the whole, things at first looked well for the King, whose cavalry gained many successes. Their leader, *Prince Rupert*, a son of the Queen of Bohemia, was the terror of the Parliament's raw levies ; but he was rash and headlong, and his habits of plunder brought discredit on his party. With artillery and ammunition Charles was ill provided, though the Queen, then in Holland, procured what she could with funds obtained by the sale of her own and the crown jewels. In February 1643 she arrived with four ships, and landed at Bridlington, where the parliamentary admiral Batten fired so hotly upon the house in which she was lodged, that she had to take shelter in a neighbouring ditch. In June, the same year, the noble and blameless Hampden, one of the best of the

Parliament officers, was mortally wounded in a skirmish with Rupert at *Chalgrove*. Another man of note, of the opposite party, perished not long afterwards in the battle of *Newbury*. This was *Lucius Carey, Viscount Falkland*, who, though he had withstood the King in the days of his misgovernment, nevertheless took up arms in his defence. To Falkland, whose one prayer was for peace, and who was often heard to exclaim that the war was breaking his heart, death came as a relief. About this time the Parliament entered into alliance with the Scots, who in the beginning of 1644 sent an army to its aid. Charles meanwhile made a truce with the insurgent Roman Catholics in Ireland in order that he might bring over troops from thence, and summoned those of the Peers and Commons who adhered to his party to meet in Parliament at Oxford, where they accordingly assembled. In the Parliament at Westminster, men of *Presbyterian* opinions had hitherto been the prevailing party, but in the army the sect of the *Independents* was gaining power. Both were opposed to *episcopacy* or *prelacy*; but there they ceased to agree. The Presbyterians had a regular system of church government by councils of ministers and elders; while the Independents looked on every congregation as an independent church, competent to direct itself without interference from any other power. To these latter belonged the most vigorous of the Roundhead officers, *Oliver Cromwell*, a Huntingdonshire gentleman, who raised in the Eastern counties a famous regiment of horse, known as the *Ironsides*; and who distinguished himself as one of the generals at the battle of *Marston Moor*, July 2, 1644, where the Royalists were defeated by the allied English and Scots. Early the next year, the Independents in Parliament obtained the entire remodelling of the army, *Sir Thomas Fairfax*, who had shared in the glory of Marston Moor, receiving the chief command, with Cromwell as his second. The "new-model army"

inflicted another defeat upon the Royalists at *Naseby*, June 14, 1645, so crushing as to render the King's cause thenceforth hopeless. Charles kept up the struggle till the following spring, when, in despair, he surrendered himself to the Scots army before Newark, and by it was subsequently delivered up to its ally the English Parliament.

6. *Religious Affairs.*—During the war, the Houses had bound themselves in a "*solemn league and covenant*" to endeavour the extirpation of popery and prelacy. This covenant—the condition upon which they had obtained the aid of the Scots Presbyterians, whose hearts were set upon establishing in England their own form of church government,—they ordered to be subscribed by all men in office and all beneficed clergy and generally by the whole nation. On non-compliance, numbers of clergymen were turned out of their livings. By an *ordinance* of Parliament, as the Acts of the two Houses were called, the aged Laud, who since his impeachment had lain apparently forgotten in the Tower, was condemned for high treason, and beheaded January 10, 1645—an act of needless revenge, which did the Presbyterian party no credit. The use of the Church Liturgy, even in private families, was forbidden; and episcopacy gave place to the Presbyterian system, which however, owing to the rise of the Independents, was never fully established except in Middlesex and Lancashire. Large domains belonging to the Bishops and the Crown were seized and sold, and heavy fines were laid on the vanquished Cavaliers.

7. *The Army.*—The King remained a state prisoner at Holmby House, near Northampton, for more than four months. He was then carried off by Joyce, a cornet of Fairfax's guard, to the army, which consisting mainly of Independents, and objecting to have Presbyterianism forced upon it, was now the rival, not the servant, of Parliament. Charles filled with

hope by the disunion of his adversaries, negotiated with all parties, trying to play off one against the other. Meanwhile, the fiercer spirits among the soldiers became so violent against him, that at last, alarmed for his life, he made his escape from Hampton Court, where he had been lodged, but, not knowing whither to go, threw himself into the power of Colonel Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight, by whom he was confined in Carisbrooke Castle, from which he afterwards made an unsuccessful attempt to escape. This was shortly before the outbreak of a second Civil War in 1648, when Royalist risings took place in Wales and various parts of England; and a Scottish army made up of Royalists and moderate Presbyterians, and led by the *Duke of Hamilton*, invaded England on his behalf. But all these attempts were put down by the energy of Fairfax and Cromwell, the latter of whom routed the Scots in the battle of *Preston*.

8. "Pride's Purge."—Frightened at the temper of the army, the Parliament, though offering the most rigorous terms, sought a treaty with the King, with whom they carried on lengthened negotiations at *Newport*. But the army had other views. Charles was removed by soldiers to Hurst Castle, and as the Parliament seemed likely to come to an agreement with him, it was "purged,"—that is, the entrance to the House being barred by *Colonel Pride* with a regiment of foot, more than a hundred members opposed to the army party were thus shut out. Thus "purged," the Commons, or rather the remains of them, voted that the King should be brought to trial for treason against the Parliament. The Lords refusing to concur, the Commons voted that the supreme authority resided in themselves, and had the House of Lords closed. For the King's trial a so-called *High Court of Justice* was appointed. The best known of its members are Cromwell, his son-in-law *Henry Ireton*, and the President of the Court, *John Bradshaw*.

9. *Trial and Death of Charles.*—On the 20th January, 1649, the King was brought from St. James's Palace before the High Court in Westminster Hall. Charles, bearing himself with kingly firmness and dignity, refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the tribunal. Marks of public sympathy for him were not wanting, and the soldiers' shouts of "Justice!" "Execution!" were mingled with counter-cries of "God save the King!" On the last day of the trial, Charles requested a conference with the Lords and Commons, but was refused, and sentence of death was pronounced upon him, as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation." The names of fifty-nine members of the Court were subscribed to the warrant of execution. Charles resigned himself to his fate with calmness, taking a tender farewell of his young children, the Princess Elizabeth, aged thirteen, and Henry Duke of Gloucester, who was but eight. The rest of his time was spent at his devotions, in the company of *Dr. Juxon, Bishop of London*, by whom he was attended on the scaffold before Whitehall, where he was beheaded, January 30. A few faithful adherents followed him to his grave in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. Within two days of the funeral, the House of Lords and the office of King were abolished by votes of the Commons. By taking the life of Charles his enemies in reality exalted his fame. The execution of a King was a thing hitherto unheard of, and Royalist and Presbyterian alike stood aghast. The mass of his subjects, forgetting his misgovernment and perfidy, only remembered that he had been illegally condemned, and that free institutions seemed to have fallen with him. The Church, which throughout his many negotiations with the Puritans he had ever striven to maintain, styled him *Martyr*, and the Cavaliers well-nigh worshipped his memory.

10. *Children of Charles.*—Of the children of Charles, his eldest sons, *Charles Prince of Wales*, born 1630, and *James*

Duke of York, born 1633, each in turn became King. *Mary* married *Prince William of Nassau, Stadholder of Holland*, and her son was afterwards King William III. of England. *Elizabeth*, and *Henry Duke of Gloucester*, who were in the power of the Parliament, were treated after their father's death like the children of a private gentleman. Elizabeth died in 1650 in Carisbrooke Castle, where she had been placed together with her brother Henry, who, two years later, was permitted to join his family abroad. He died soon after the Restoration. *Henrietta Maria*, born 1644, married Philip Duke of Orleans.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

The Commonwealth (1)—*the Irish War* (2)—*war with Scotland; battles of Dunbar and Worcester; escape of Charles* (3)—*the Dutch War* (4)—*the Long Parliament turned out by Cromwell; the Little Parliament* (5)—*the Protectorate; Oliver Cromwell; offer of the Crown; "Oliver's Lords"* (6)—*foreign affairs* (7)—*death of Cromwell* (8)—*religious affairs; the Quakers* (9)—*Richard Cromwell* (10)—*General Monk; final dissolution of the Long Parliament* (11)—*Restoration of the King; character of the Puritans* (12).

1. The Commonwealth, 1649-1660.—The House of Commons, such as it was, had now become the ruling power, and by it a *Council of State*, of which Bradshaw was president, was appointed to carry on the government. The Duke of Hamilton, together with two Royalist noblemen taken in the recent risings, was beheaded; and England was declared a *Commonwealth*, to be governed without King or Lords.

Some voices however raised the complaint that the new government was worse than the old ; and in the army these malcontents—called "*Levellers*," because they held, or were classed by their enemies with those who held, that all degrees of men should be *levelled*, or placed on an equality as to rank and property—broke out into a mutiny, which was swiftly crushed by Cromwell.

2. Ireland.—Young *Charles*, who was regarded as King by every Royalist, was an exile abroad. His chief hopes lay in Ireland, where *James Butler, Marquess of Ormond*, the Royalist Lord-Lieutenant, gathered round him everyone, whether Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, or Presbyterian, who would fight for the King. Against these the Parliament sent out, as their Lord-Lieutenant, Cromwell, who by dint of unsparing severity well-nigh subdued the country in nine months, leaving Ireton to carry on his work. Under the rule of the Commonwealth, permission was given to the Roman Catholic leaders and their followers to enter the service of foreign states ; many of the Irish were shipped to the West Indies ; large confiscations of land were made, and many of the old proprietors were "transplanted" to lands assigned them in Connaught and Clare, while English "adventurers" (men who, upon the outbreak of the rebellion, had advanced money for quelling it, in consideration of forfeited lands to be allotted to them) and parliamentary soldiers were settled upon districts in Munster, Leinster, and Ulster. In short, the country was completely conquered.

3. War with Scotland.—Scotland, where Charles had arrived, and was accepted as King, was next invaded by Cromwell, who, attacking the Scots general *Lesley* near *Dunbar*, Sept. 3, 1650, totally routed him. In the course of the next year, whilst Cromwell was still engaged in Scotland, Charles and his army, suddenly crossing the Border, pushed as far as *Worcester*, where he was overtaken by Cromwell, and de-

feated on the anniversary of Dunbar. The Parliament had declared the adherents of Charles rebels and traitors, and as such three of the most distinguished of the prisoners suffered death. A reward of a thousand pounds was offered for the apprehension of Charles, who, having made his escape from the field, went through a succession of hazardous adventures, during which he entrusted himself to more than forty persons, none of whom ever failed in fidelity or caution. The *Penderells*, Roman Catholic labouring men, living at or about Boscobel in Shropshire, were the chief agents in his concealment. At one time, with hair cut short, and dressed as a peasant, he lay hidden in Boscobel wood; at another, shrouded in the thick leaves of a great oak-tree, he watched in security the Parliament soldiers hunting up and down in search of fugitives. Having walked till he was footsore, he was glad, when he at last left Boscobel House for Moseley, the abode of a Roman Catholic gentleman, to ride the horse of the miller, Humfrey Penderell, who, to Charles' complaint of its jolting pace, replied that he must remember it was carrying the weight of three kingdoms. Moseley he left in the disguise of servant to a gentlewoman, Jane Lane, who rode behind him on a pillion, as the manner then was for ladies to travel. Finally he and his friend Lord Wilmot sailed in a collier vessel from Brighton, then a small fishing town. He was recognized by the master, who however said he would venture life and all for him; and thus, after so many perils, Charles landed safely in Normandy. The war in Scotland was carried on by one of Cromwell's officers, *General George Monk*, who brought the country under the authority of the English Parliament.

4. The Dutch War.—In 1652 a war broke out with Holland, memorable as a trial of strength between Admiral *Robert Blake*, and the great Dutch seamen *Martin Tromp* and *Michael de Ruyter*. Once, after worsting Blake in

the Downs, Tromp, it is said, sailed through the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, to signify that he would sweep the seas of the English—an insult which was afterwards avenged in three stubborn contests. Blake however, owing to ill-health, was not in the last of these battles, fought in July 1653, in which Tromp fell. One of the commanders of the English fleet was General Monk; for in those days the naval and military services were not kept separate. Peace was made with Holland the next year, after the Parliament had ceased to rule.

5. *Expulsion of the Long Parliament.*—While this war was going on, the government was again changed; for the rivalry between the Parliament—or “*the Rump*,” as the remnant of the House of Commons was contemptuously called—and the army had ended in the triumph of the latter. On the 20th April, 1653, the Lord General Cromwell entered the House, and, after bitterly upbraiding the members, called in two files of musketeers, and pointing to the mace, the symbol of authority, bade a soldier “take away that bauble.” He then turned out all the members, and locked the doors. Having thus made himself master of England, his desire appears to have been to restore the old constitution, with himself for King. But he found a check upon his wishes in the army. This Puritan body, combining perfect discipline with burning religious zeal, was unlike any ordinary military force. Officers and soldiers prayed and preached together: the troops lived, said a foreigner, “as if they were societies of monks.” These men were proud of their general, in whom they saw the union of soldiership and sanctity carried to perfection; and most of them were willing that he should be head of the State, though the name of King was hateful to them. Cromwell therefore contented himself with forming a Council, and then summoned divers persons by name to serve in Parliament. This assembly

was by many called "*the Little Parliament*," and by the Cavaliers, "Praise-God Barebone's Parliament," after the quaint name of one of its members. In a few months' time, a majority of the members surrendered their powers to Cromwell, who thereupon took the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland* (December 16, 1653).

6. **The Protectorate.** Oliver Cromwell, 1653-1658.—With few friends except among the soldiers, the Protector had for enemies, not only the Royalists, but also the Republicans, who looked upon him as the destroyer of the Commonwealth. In the beginning of 1655, a Republican plot and a Royalist insurrection were alike crushed, the Republicans being leniently treated, but not so the Cavaliers, some of whom were executed, and others sold for slaves in the West Indies. Many other schemes were formed for the Protector's overthrow, and even for his assassination; but he kept himself well informed of all that was going on, and his rule was too strong and vigilant to be shaken off. The Protector's first Parliament, of Commons only, questioned his authority, and was dissolved by him in anger. The next Parliament proposed that he should take the title of King, which he would probably have gladly done; but a number of the officers of the army, and others who were in favour of a Commonwealth, opposed it so strongly that he thought it better to refuse. Almost all the old forms of the constitution were however restored under new names. The Protector was enthroned with all but kingly pomp in Westminster Hall, and there were again to be two Houses of Parliament. The "Other House," as the Commons called it, was to be a House of Lords, but it proved a failure. A few of the old nobles were invited, who almost all kept aloof; members of the Protector's Council, officers, and others, mostly taken from the House of Commons, made up the rest. But the

Commons made such difficulties about giving them the title of Lords, that Cromwell dissolved the Parliament, February 4, 1658. As Scotland and Ireland were now united with the English Commonwealth, representatives from those countries sat in the Parliaments of the Protectorate. The English rule in Scotland was maintained by an army of ten thousand men under the command of Monk.

7. *Foreign Affairs.*—Whatever might be thought of the Protector's home rule, the glory of his foreign policy dazzled even his opponents. Under him England became one of the most formidable powers in Europe; and France, Spain, and Holland alike courted his friendship. Blake, upholding everywhere the honour of the English flag, enforced reparation for damage to English commerce from the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and chastised the pirates of Barbary. In 1655 the West Indian possessions of Spain were attacked, and the island of *Jamaica*, then belonging to that country, was taken by the Protector's forces. Two years later, the daring Blake fought his last fight, attacking and burning, under a tremendous fire from the batteries on shore, the Spanish treasure-ships in the harbour of *Santa Cruz*, in Teneriffe. Blake did not live to receive the applause of his countrymen; he died within sight of Plymouth, August 17, 1657. Cromwell, taking Queen Elizabeth as his model, also made himself the protector of the Reformed faith throughout Europe, and interfered to check the Duke of Savoy's oppression of the *Vaudois*, or Protestants of Piedmont. In the last year of his rule, he gave the country a compensation for the still regretted Calais, the town of *Dunkirk* being taken from the Spaniards in 1658 by the allied English and French forces, and retained by England.

8. *Death of the Protector.*—Oliver, who was in ill-health, did not long survive the death of his favourite daughter, Elizabeth Claypole. He died of ague, on his "Fortunate Day"

the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester, Sept. 3, 1658. He left two sons, *Richard* and *Henry*, the elder of whom was proclaimed Protector, his father, on his deathbed, having been understood to name him for his successor. The character of Oliver Cromwell is still a subject of dispute. Royalists, Presbyterians, and Republicans joined in denouncing him as a hypocrite; yet there are grounds for considering him a sincere enthusiast. His genius cannot be doubted. For the first forty years of his life he never saw war, yet he proved a great general; bred in a private station, he became a great prince, even his enemies admitting that he bore himself with dignity. His power and wisdom extorted an unwilling admiration, and in after days, when a foreign fleet insulted our shores, men looked back with something of regret to the mighty Oliver, who "made all the neighbour princes fear him."

9. Religious Affairs.—During this period arose the sect of the *Quakers*, as the world in general called them, or *Friends*, as they called themselves, founded by *George Fox*, son of a weaver. They were at first looked on with scorn, and were much harassed, though the Protector, tolerant by inclination, treated Fox kindly. The fallen Church of England was, on the whole, not very harshly dealt with, while freedom was allowed to the various Puritan sects, none being suffered to oppress the others. Even the Jews were allowed to build a synagogue in London.

10. The Protectorate. Richard Cromwell, 1658-1659.—Great was the vexation of the Royalists on finding that *Richard Cromwell* took his place as quietly as any rightful King. Gentle, docile, and of ordinary abilities, the young man had made no enemies; but the army scorned the rule of one who had never distinguished himself in war. After eight months, the malcontent officers recalled the "Rump" to power, and Richard, without a struggle, gave up his office

and retired into private life, whither he was followed by his brother Henry, who, during the Protectorate, had governed Ireland with ability.

11. *General Monk*.—The Rump was no sooner restored than its quarrel with the army began again, and in a few months it was expelled by the leader of the military party, *General John Lambert*, who thought himself a second Oliver Cromwell. But Monk, the commander of the English army in Scotland, refusing to acknowledge the government set up by the officers in London, marched with his forces towards England, and fixed his head-quarters at *Coldstream* on the Tweed, in memory of which one of the regiments which composed his vanguard is still called the *Coldstream* Guards. At this news, the people at once broke out against the new government, and refused to pay taxes; the fleet at the same time sailed up the Thames, and declared for the Parliament. Lambert, who had marched to the north to stop Monk, was forsaken by his soldiers; and Monk, the ruler of the hour, entered London, February 3, 1660. Cold and silent, he for some days let not a word fall that could betray his real intentions, but at last he declared for a free parliament;—an announcement which was received with every mark of joy, amidst the ringing of bells and the blaze of bonfires. The Presbyterian members, who had been “purged” out by Pride, again took their seats, and Parliament, after issuing writs for a general election, decreed its own dissolution, March 16. Thus ended that famous “Long Parliament” which, twice expelled and twice restored, had existed for twenty years.

12. *The Restoration*.—The new Parliament, or rather *Convention*, for, not having been summoned by the King, it was not in law a parliament, met April 25, the Peers now returning to their House. Monk meanwhile had been in secret communication with the exiled Charles, who issued from *Breda* a declaration to his “loving subjects,” wherein

he promised pardon for past offences to all, "excepting only such persons as shall hereafter be excepted by Parliament," and also "a liberty to tender consciences." On the 8th May, seven days after this declaration was received, Charles II. was proclaimed King, and the fleet having been sent to convoy him from Holland to Dover, he made his entry into London, May 29, in the midst of almost universal rejoicing. On his road he passed the Commonwealth army, drawn up on Blackheath to give a reluctant welcome to the King whom they abhorred. Thus fell the Puritans, a class who rendered great political service to their country, and who were at first much to be respected for their conscientious devotion to what seemed to them to be right. But they committed the error of trying to make all men religious after their own pattern. The Long Parliament suppressed public amusements, ordered Christmas to be kept as a fast-day, and assigned punishments of unprecedented severity to breaches of private morality. Religion, or the appearance of it, was made a necessary qualification for office; and the result was that the name of Puritan became synonymous with that of hypocrite, and the unnatural restraint of the Commonwealth was succeeded at the Restoration by an outbreak of profligacy.

CHAPTER XXXV.

CHARLES II.

Charles II. (1)—the Convention Parliament (2)—the Nonconformists (3)—Ireland (4)—the King's marriage; Tangier; Bombay; sale of Dunkirk (5)—the Plague Year (6)—the Great Fire (7)—the Dutch War (8)—fall of Clarendon; the Triple Alliance;

Treaty of Dover; the Cabal (9)—the Popish Plot (10)—Habeas Corpus Act (11)—Whig and Tory; the Dukes of York and Monmouth; the Whig Plots; death of Charles (12).

1. House of Stuart. Charles II., 1660-1685.—*Charles II.* began his reign with everything in his favour. No measure was ever more acceptable to the nation than was the Restoration; no conditions were made with him, no new restrictions laid upon him; the year of his return was styled, not the *first* but the *twelfth* of his reign, which was thus reckoned to have begun from the time of his father's death. Unfortunately Charles had few qualities which merited the love bestowed upon him. He had talents, easy good-temper, and the manners of an accomplished gentleman, but neither heart nor principles. So far as he had any religion, he was secretly a Roman Catholic; but the main object of his life was to be amused and to avoid trouble.

2. The Convention Parliament.—The *Convention Parliament*—for by its first statute it declared itself to be a parliament—passed an Act of Indemnity by which the promised general pardon was granted; most of the late King's judges were excepted from its benefits. Of these regicides thirteen were executed, and others were left in prison for life. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were, on the next anniversary of the late King's death, dragged out of their tombs at Westminster, and hanged on the gallows at Tyburn. The Act of Indemnity however was far from pleasing the distressed Cavaliers, who found that it barred them from legal remedy for their losses during the late troubles, and their feelings were consequently very bitter. The Parliament also abolished the now useless and oppressive tenures by knight service, and deprived the King of the prerogative of *purveyance and pre-emption*. In compensation, he received an excise upon beer, a tax first introduced by the Long Parliament. The army was disbanded as soon

as possible ; and if Parliament had had its wish, there would have been no military force except the militia ; but Charles gradually contrived to spare enough from his revenue to form, and to maintain, though without the sanction of law, a small standing army.

3. **The Nonconformists.**—In the new Parliament, which met May 1661, the Cavalier party had completely the upper hand. The *Corporation Act* was passed, by which every officer of a corporation was required to communicate according to the rites of the Church of England, and to swear his belief that taking arms against the King was in all cases unlawful. The Bishops were restored to their seats in the House of Lords ; and the Liturgy was revived. A stringent *Act of Uniformity*, requiring all persons holding ecclesiastical preferment to declare their assent to everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer (which had been recently revised), drove about two thousand ministers from their benefices, as the Royalist incumbents had been turned out before them. This was followed at intervals by harsh Acts against the Nonconformists and their religious meetings. Charles, for the sake of the Roman Catholics, was himself not inclined to be hard upon nonconformity ; but his motive was suspected. In 1673, he felt constrained to give his assent to the *Test Act*, which, though aimed in particular at the Roman Catholics, shut out the Protestant Nonconformists also ; one immediate effect was to oblige the King's brother, *James Duke of York*, who was by that time an avowed Roman Catholic, to resign his place of Lord High Admiral. Under this Act, all persons holding civil or military office were required to take the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, to subscribe a declaration against *transubstantiation* (the distinguishing doctrine of the Church of Rome upon the Eucharist), and to communicate according to the Anglican rite.

4. **Ireland.**—In the other parts of the British Islands the

royal authority was re-established without difficulty. Scotland became again a separate kingdom; in Ireland, the Church was restored, and a parliament proceeded to settle the claims of the dispossessed Royalists and Roman Catholics on the one side, and of the adventurers and soldiers, Cromwell's colonists, on the other. After long wrangling, the Cromwellians gave up a third of their gains; but numbers of Irish claimants who protested, truly or untruly, that they had had no share in the rebellion of 1641, obtained neither restitution nor compensation, and raised bitter complaints.

5. *Tangier, Bombay, and Dunkirk.*—In 1662, Charles married the *Infanta of Portugal, Katharine of Braganza*, receiving as part of her dowry the fortress of *Tangier* in Africa and the island of *Bombay* in India. *Tangier* was abandoned before the end of the reign as worthless; *Bombay* after a short time was made over to the East India Company. In the above-mentioned year, *Dunkirk* was sold to *Louis XIV.* King of France, a transaction which roused general indignation, the more so as it was believed that the motive was the gaining funds to keep up a profligate court.

6. *The Plague Year.*—In 1665, during an unusually hot and dry summer, the Plague broke out in London with a fury such as had not been known for three centuries. Most of the rich, the Court among the first, fled from the stricken city; the stout-hearted Monk, whose services in the Restoration had gained him the title of *Duke of Albemarle*, remained as the sole representative of government, although, as he said, he should have thought himself much safer in action against the Dutch. The shops were shut up, the grass grew in the streets; rows of houses stood empty, or marked on the doors with a red cross and the words, "Lord have mercy on us,"—the sign that the pestilence was within. By winter

time the worst was over ; but in these six months it is said that more than 100,000 people perished.

7. The Great Fire of London.—Hardly had London recovered from the scourge of plague when another evil befell it. On the 2nd September, 1666—the *Annus Mirabilis*, or “*Year of Wonders*,” as the poet Dryden named it—an accidental fire broke out in Pudding Lane, near Fish Street. The neighbouring houses, being of wood, quickly caught the flames which, driven by an east wind, soon wrapped London in a blaze which made the night as light as day for ten miles round. At this fearful time, Charles, usually so careless and indifferent, displayed an unexpected energy whilst superintending, together with his brother the Duke of York, the pulling down of houses, for the purpose of checking the flames. At last, wide gaps having been made in the streets by blowing up the buildings with gunpowder, and the wind abating, the fire was stayed, though not until after it had burned for three days, and laid London in ashes from the Tower to the Temple and Smithfield. The column known as “*the Monument*” marks the spot near which the fire began. Old St. Paul’s being among the buildings which perished, it was replaced by the present church, the work of the great architect *Sir Christopher Wren*.

8. The Dutch War.—These calamitous years were further marked by a naval war, arising out of commercial rivalry, with the Dutch. One battle in the Downs, fought in June 1666, was contested for four days ; the Dutch were commanded by De Ruyter, the English by Albemarle and Prince Rupert. Louis XIV. gave some assistance to the Dutch, but after a while he entered into secret negotiations with Charles, and did no more for his allies. The English had some successes, but the supplies voted for the war being squandered by the Court, the vessels were laid up unrepaid, and the sailors left unpaid till they mutinied. In 1667 a Dutch fleet

sailed up the Medway, burned the English vessels at Chatham, and blockaded the river Thames—a disgrace which sank deep into the nation's heart. Peace was made soon afterwards.

9. *Treaty of Dover.*—The anger of the nation was somewhat appeased by the dismissal of the *Lord Chancellor, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon*, hitherto the King's chief adviser, and who was disliked, though for different reasons, both by courtiers and people. Being impeached by the Commons, Clarendon fled the country, and died in exile. The King's advisers now took the popular step of forming the *Triple Alliance* between England, Holland, and Sweden, in order to check Louis XIV. in his career of conquest. But Charles had other schemes at heart, and ere long he sold himself to France by the secret *Treaty of Dover*, May 22, 1670. Under this he engaged to declare himself, as soon as might be prudent, a Roman Catholic, to join in a war against Holland, and otherwise to serve Louis' designs; while Louis engaged to pay him a large subsidy, a yearly pension during the war, and to aid him with an army if any insurrection should break out in England. The leading ministers of the Crown at this time are known as the "*Cabal*:"—a term used in much the same sense as *Cabinet*, but applied more particularly to them in consequence of its comprising the initials of their names or titles, *Clifford*, Lord *Arlington*, the Duke of *Buckingham*, Lord *Ashley* (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury), and the Duke of *Lauderdale*. Of these, only a few were entrusted with the secret of the King's promise to declare himself a Roman Catholic. For some time before this reign that which we call the *cabinet*—consisting of a small number of persons selected by the sovereign, whose existence as a body is still unrecognized by law—had begun to draw to itself the functions originally belonging to the whole council. The war with Holland was

declared in 1672, the necessary funds being raised by "shutting the Exchequer," that is, by suspending the payments due to public creditors. Peace however was made in two years.

10. **The Popish Plot.**—In 1678, the nation, already not without some suspicion of the real plot of Charles and Louis against its religion and liberty, was driven wild by the alleged discovery of a "*Popish Plot*" for the assassination of the King and the massacre of all Protestants. *Titus Oates*, a man of infamous character, was the chief witness to it ; and by him and by others who made a profit of perjury, the lives of many innocent Roman Catholics were sworn away. Under the influence of the popular feeling, an Act was passed which, by the most stringent test, shut out Roman Catholics (the Duke of York excepted) from either House of Parliament and from the royal presence.

11. **Habeas Corpus Act.**—The famous *Habeas Corpus Act* was passed in 1679. The Great Charter had already established the immunity of every freeman from arbitrary imprisonment ; but in practice various ways were found of violating this right. The object of this Act was effectually to provide that no man should be long detained in prison on a criminal charge without either the legality of his imprisonment being proved in open court, or his being brought to trial. In times of public danger, the operation of this statute is sometimes suspended by Acts giving the Government power for a limited period to imprison suspected persons without bringing them to trial.

12. **Whig and Tory.**—In the same year, 1679, the party names of *Whig* and *Tory* first came into use. *Whig* was a nickname given to the insurgent Presbyterians of Scotland, and from them it was transferred to those English politicians who were opposed to the Court, and who were now bent on shutting out the Duke of York from the throne on account

of his religion. Those who were against this scheme were called *Tories*, the name given to the Roman Catholic outlaws who then haunted the bogs of Ireland. The King had no legitimate children ; but the eldest of his illegitimate sons, *James Duke of Monmouth*, was put forward by some of the Whigs as a claimant. Monmouth was the darling of the common people, who believed him to be of lawful birth, and who were fascinated by his grace and winning manners. For the last four years of his reign, Charles, irritated by the persistent attempts to exclude his brother from the succession, ruled without a Parliament. Many of the Whigs began to plan insurrections, while a few of the most desperate among them formed the "*Rye-House Plot*" for the assassination of the King and his brother. These projects being betrayed, several executions followed ; amongst others, those of the upright and patriotic *William Lord Russell*, and of *Algernon Sidney*, an ardent Republican. Both Russell and Sidney are thought to have been wrongfully convicted. Monmouth, who had been concerned in the Whig plots, went abroad ; and his rival the Duke of York after a while resumed his office of Lord High Admiral. While wavering as to his future policy, Charles was seized with a fit, and after lingering a few days, died on the 6th February, 1685. On his death-bed, after the Bishops had vainly pressed him to take the Sacrament, his brother secretly brought him a monk, from whose hands he received the last rites of the Church of Rome. The people mourned him with genuine sorrow, for with all his faults he had never lost his personal popularity ; while his brother's accession to power was dreaded.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

JAMES II.

James II. (1)—the Western Rebellion; beheading of Monmouth; the Bloody Assizes (2)—misgovernment of James; Declaration of Indulgence (3)—trial of the Seven Bishops (4)—birth of the Pretender (5)—invitation to the Prince of Orange (6)—landing of the Prince; flight of the Queen and King (7)—return and second flight of James; the Declaration of Right; the Crown accepted by the Prince and Princess of Orange (8)—literature (9)—science (10)—architecture (11)—the Huguenots (12).—

1. **James II., 1685-1688.**—*James Duke of York* came to the throne under the disadvantage of holding a faith abhorred by the majority of his subjects; but as he was thought a man of his word, his assurance that he would defend the Church of England and respect the laws was relied on. Yet he soon tried the Protestant loyalty by going in royal state to mass, and other evidence of a changed condition of affairs was not wanting.

2. **The Duke of Monmouth.**—Four months after the accession of James, the Duke of Monmouth, instigated and accompanied by a knot of Whigs who, having been implicated in the Plot of 1683, had found shelter in the Low Countries, landed in Dorsetshire in arms. At Taunton, June 20, 1685, he assumed the title of King. The Western peasantry and townsfolk flocked to his standard; but none of the Whig nobles joined him, as he had hoped; and on the 6th July, he was defeated on *Sedgemoor* by James's troops. His peasant infantry made a gallant stand, the Mendip miners in particular fighting desperately, though deserted

by Monmouth, who, seeing that the day was lost, fled away. Two days later, worn out with hunger and fatigue, he was captured whilst hiding in a ditch. He had been attainted by Act of Parliament shortly after his landing, and was beheaded on the 15th July, whilst his followers were treated with fearful severity. Several were summarily hanged by the royal general, the Earl of Feversham, and by Colonel Percy Kirke, a hard-hearted and lawless man, who was left in command at Bridgewater. The *Chief Justice Jeffreys*, notorious for his brutal demeanour on the judgment-seat, and for the delight he seemed to take in passing sentence, came down to hold the "*Bloody Assizes*," as they were named. The first victim was the widow of one of Cromwell's lords, *Alice Lisle*, who had given shelter to two flying rebels. She was beheaded at Winchester, intercession for her life having in vain been made with the King. The services of Jeffreys, who boasted that he had hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest, and who at the same time made a fortune by the sale of pardons, were rewarded with the Great Seal.

3. **Government of James.**—The King, now at the height of power, set his heart upon obtaining a repeal of the Habeas Corpus Act, upon keeping up a large army, and, above all, upon abolishing or dispensing with the laws which shut out Roman Catholics from office. Finding that his Parliament, though strongly Tory, would not endure his keeping officers of his own religion in the army, he prorogued it, and disregarding the advice of the wiser among the Roman Catholics and of the Pope, *Innocent XI.*, who would have had him govern according to law, gave himself up to the secret councils of a knot of violent men, headed by a Jesuit named *Petre*. Those of his ministers and judges who stood in the way of his schemes were dismissed, favour being shown to none except those who would lend them-

selves to his purposes ; and from that, even loyal Tories shrank. Ireland was placed under the rule of the Roman Catholic *Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel*, who detested the Protestant settlers, and filled all offices with men of his own creed. Although two Acts of Parliament had abolished the High Commission Court of Elizabeth, and forbidden the erection of any similar tribunal, a new Ecclesiastical Commission, with Jeffreys at its head, was set up for the purpose of coercing the clergy ; and a series of attacks were made upon the Church. One in particular which excited great indignation, was the ejection by the Ecclesiastical Commission, of the Fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, for having maintained a President legally elected by themselves against two unqualified persons recommended one after the other by the King. Finding meanwhile that the Tory gentry and the Anglican clergy, hitherto such staunch friends to the Crown, were all against him, James began to court the Protestant Dissenters ; and in hopes of conciliating them, as well as of serving his own religion, he published, April 4th, 1687, a *Declaration of Indulgence*, suspending all penal laws against nonconformity, and dispensing with all religious tests. In judging of the King's conduct, it should be remembered, that, whether the statutes he thus set aside were good or bad, it was the duty of an English King to govern according to the constitution, and that in issuing the Declaration of Indulgence James committed an unconstitutional act. Three months later he dissolved the Parliament, which had never met since its prorogation in 1685, and set himself, by new modelling the borough corporations, which then returned a majority of the representatives of the Commons, and by every other means in his power, to ensure the election of a more subservient one ; but everywhere he found a resolute spirit of resistance.

4. The Seven Bishops.—In 1688 the King issued a second

Declaration of Indulgence, which he ordered to be read at the time of divine service by the officiating ministers of all churches and chapels. A petition against this order was thereupon signed and presented by *William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury*, and six Bishops of his province. This the King received with great anger, and being further incensed at the resistance of the most part of the clergy, he resolved to bring the petitioners before the Court of King's Bench on a charge of seditious libel. "The Seven Bishops" were committed to the Tower, amid marks of public sympathy and respect from all quarters, even the sentinels at the Traitors' Gate asking their blessing. Their trial, at which not one of the judges ventured to say that the Declaration of Indulgence was legal, ended with a verdict of "*Not Guilty*," and at this result the national delight knew no bounds. James received the news at Hounslow, where his army was encamped. As he was setting out for London, hearing a great shout, he asked what it meant. "Nothing," was the answer, "the soldiers are glad that the Bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing?" said James, who felt bitterly how complete his defeat had been.

5. Birth of the Pretender.—During this exciting time was born, June 10, *James Francis Edward*, son of King James and his second wife, *Mary of Modena*—an event which, much as it elated the King's partisans, in reality hastened their downfall. By his first wife, *Anne Hyde*, daughter of Lord Clarendon, the King had two children, *Mary* and *Anne*, both Protestants, and married to Protestants, the one to her cousin *William Henry, Prince of Orange Nassau* and *Stadholder of Holland*, the other to *George Prince of Denmark*. The nation had therefore hitherto endured in the belief that the next reign would set things right. But the birth of this son changed the whole prospect, and in their vexation

the people raised a cry that the infant Prince was no child of the King and Queen.

6. *Invitation to William.*—The leading malcontents now took a decisive step. On the day of the Bishops' acquittal, June 30, a secret invitation to the Prince of Orange to come over at the head of a sufficient force was despatched, with the assurance that the mass of the people would support him. This paper, signed in cipher by the seven chiefs of the conspiracy—the *Earls of Shrewsbury, Devonshire, and Danby, Lord Lumley, Henry Compton Bishop of London, Admiral Russell, and Henry Sidney* (the last two cousin and brother to the Russell and Sidney who had been beheaded in the previous reign)—was carried to Holland by *Admiral Herbert*, disguised as a common sailor. Unwitting of the perils thickening around him, James went on in his course. To ascertain the temper of the army, the regiment now called the 12th of the Line was drawn up in his presence and told that all who would not subscribe an engagement to assist in carrying into effect his Majesty's intentions concerning the test must quit the service. To the King's amazement, the soldiers, with but few exceptions, at once laid down their pikes and muskets. In truth, so much had the English army caught the spirit of resistance, that he sent over for Irish troops of his own creed, raised and trained by Tyrconnel. In vain did Louis of France warn James of his danger; not till the Prince of Orange and his armament were ready to sail did the King open his eyes. Then, terror-stricken, he attempted to conciliate his subjects by abolishing the Ecclesiastical Commission, and making other marked concessions; but it was too late.

7. *Landing of William.*—William put forth a Declaration stating that he was coming to protect the liberties of England, and to secure the calling of a free parliament, which should redress grievances and inquire into the birth of the Prince

of Wales. On the 5th November, 1688, being well served by the wind, which prevented the King's fleet from intercepting him, he landed at *Torbay*, where he was received by the common people with good will, though it was some days before any men of note joined him. Gradually adherents of rank came in; Lord Delamere and the Earls of Devonshire and Danby raised the North in his cause; officers of the Royal army, chief among them *Lord Churchill*, afterwards the great Duke of Marlborough, went over to him; and these defections frightened James into retreating before the invader. The King's distress was aggravated by finding that even his daughter Anne had, together with her favourite, Lady Churchill, fled to the northern insurgents. "God help me!" exclaimed he, "my own children have forsaken me." Rather than come to terms with his subjects, he began to plan the escape of his family and himself. On a stormy night the Queen, escorted by the French Count of Lauzun, stole out of Whitehall with her infant child, and fled to France. At three o'clock in the morning of the 11th December the King set out to follow her. Whilst crossing the Thames in a wherry, he flung the Great Seal into the stream, whence it was accidentally fished up after many months.

8. *The Interregnum.*—As there was now no government, such peers as were at hand took upon themselves a temporary authority, and sent to the Prince of Orange, requesting his presence in London. The City was almost in a state of anarchy, but the mob showed no disposition towards bloodshed, except in one case. The Lord Chancellor Jeffreys, disguised as a collier sailor, being discovered in an alehouse at Wapping, was in peril of his life. At his own entreaty, the Lords sent him to the Tower, where he died in 1689, his end being hastened by his intemperance. Meanwhile the King had not succeeded in leaving

the island, and having been stopped near Sheerness by some rough fishermen, who took him for a fugitive Jesuit, he returned to London. The Tories, who had considered themselves freed from their allegiance by his desertion, felt that the case was altered when he was still in his kingdom. To frighten him to a second escape was now the policy of William, who, sending his troops to take possession of Whitehall, signified his desire that James should withdraw. The fallen King thereupon retired, escorted by Dutch soldiers, to Rochester, where, being guarded with intentional negligence, he soon carried out his enemies' wishes by taking flight, December 22, to France, and there was received with generous kindness by Louis XIV. At the invitation of an assembly of peers and commoners, the Prince of Orange took on himself the government, and summoned a Convention of the Estates of the Realm, which met January 22, 1689. After long discussion, this Convention resolved, "that it hath been found by experience to be inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a Popish Prince," and that King James II., "having endeavoured to subvert the constitution," "having violated the fundamental laws," and "having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom," had abdicated the government, and that the throne had thereby become vacant. That there might never again be any room for dispute between the sovereign and the nation, a *Declaration of Right* was drawn up, which asserted the ancient rights and liberties of England; and in entire confidence that these would be preserved by William, the Lords and Commons offered the crown to him and his wife. The offer, formally made on the 13th February, was accepted; and thus was completed the *English Revolution*. The sovereignty of *Ireland* went with that of England; and a few months later the Crown of *Scotland* was bestowed upon William and Mary by the Estates of that country.

9. Literature.—Among the divines of the Stuart period, *Jeremy Taylor*, who died in 1667, is celebrated for his devotional works and for his sermons, the finest that had yet been heard in the English Church. *Clarendon*, noted as the minister of Charles II., is also famous as the historian of the stirring times through which he lived. His *History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England*, despite its inaccuracies and Royalist prejudices, remains one of the great works of our literature. *Izaak Walton*, “the Father of Angling,” as he is called, published, in 1653, *The Complete Angler*, which is more than a mere treatise upon fishing. Its quaint grace, and feeling for rural scenes, render it interesting even to those who care nothing about its subject. *John Bunyan*, the greatest of allegorists, born in 1628 near Bedford, was brought up to the trade of a tinker, and served for a short time as a soldier in the parliamentary army. Joining himself to the Baptists, he became noted as a preacher; and it was after the Restoration, while lying in Bedford gaol for the offence of upholding “unlawful meetings and conventicles,” that he composed the first part of the *Pilgrim’s Progress*. This religious allegory became the delight of pious people among the poor, although it was more than a century before the genius of its author was acknowledged by literary critics. Of the poets of the time of Charles I., *Abraham Cowley* was in his own day accounted unrivalled, though he is now but little read. Another noted poet was *Edmund Waller*, who employed his poetical talents to praise Cromwell during the Protectorate, and Charles II. at the Restoration. *Samuel Butler* was the author of *Hudibras*, a burlesque poem against the Puritans, the hero, from whom it has its name, being a half-crazy Presbyterian justice, who undertakes the reform of abuses. The Commonwealth party, though not in general favoured by the wits and verse-writers, could claim for its own one of the greatest poets of

England. *John Milton*, who wrote in defence of the execution of Charles I., and held the post of Latin Secretary to the Council of State, published his chief work, *Paradise Lost*, in 1667. Many however of his beautiful minor poems were written before the Civil Wars began. He died in 1674, having been blind for more than twenty years. The reaction against the Puritan over-strictness showed itself strongly in the polite literature of the time of Charles II., above all in the comic dramas, which were a disgrace to the age—not that they lacked wit or humour or dramatic skill, but because they were morally bad to a degree which testifies to the debased state of the society which delighted in them. Writing for the stage was then the most profitable employment for an author, and *John Dryden*, chief of the poets of the Restoration school, spent his best years upon dramatic composition, for which his talents were unsuited. As a lyric poet, and especially as a satirist, he stands high, one of his most famous works being the satiric poem of *Absalom and Achitophel*, under which names the Duke of Monmouth and his political friend the Earl of Shaftesbury are aimed at.

10. **Science.**—Among the famous men who lived under the first Stuart Kings was the physician *William Harvey*, who made the discovery of the circulation of the blood. The Restoration period, however politically discreditable, was a time of great advances in science. The *Royal Society*, which numbered among its first members men illustrious in chemistry, in astronomy, in mathematics, in botany, and in zoology, was established shortly after the Restoration. *John Flamsteed*, from whose time dates the beginning of modern astronomy, was the first Astronomer-Royal, the Observatory at Greenwich being founded by Charles II. for the benefit of navigation. The greatest name in science is that of *Isaac Newton*, famed for his wonderful discoveries in mathematics

and natural philosophy. He was born in Lincolnshire in 1642, and died in 1727, in his eighty-fifth year. His chief work, the *Principia*, was published in 1687.

11. *Architecture*.—Under the Tudors Gothic architecture had begun to go down. Italian details became more and more mixed with it, and the style called *Elizabethan* was the result. The pure *Italian* style, in imitation of ancient Roman architecture, was brought into England early in the seventeenth century by *Inigo Jones*, and superseded Gothic, which was now little regarded or understood. *Sir Christopher Wren*, admirable in the style of his age, failed when he imitated Gothic, as the towers he added to Westminster Abbey still serve to show. His finest work is the cathedral church of St. Paul, which was completed in 1710. He died in 1723, at the age of ninety, and was buried in the crypt of his own great church, with this epitaph:—“*Si monumentum requiris, circumspice* :” (“If thou seekest his monument, look around”).

12. *The Huguenots*.—In 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the *Edict of Nantes*, under which the *Huguenots* or French Protestants had hitherto enjoyed a certain amount of religious liberty. In consequence of this revocation and the ensuing persecution, thousands of brave, intelligent, and industrious men of that faith fled from his dominions, carrying their valour or their skill to other lands. Many of these refugees settled in Spitalfields, London, and there introduced the manufacture of silk. Others, taking military service with the Prince of Orange, turned their swords against their former King.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WILLIAM AND MARY. WILLIAM III.

William and Mary; the Non-jurors (1)—war in Ireland; siege of Londonderry; battle of the Boyne (2)—battle of La Hogue, Peace of Ryswick; the National Debt; the re-coinage; Assassination Plot; the Bank of England (3)—death of Queen Mary (4)—the Peace; the Spanish Succession; death of William (5)—legislation; Bill of Rights; Act of Settlement and other Statutes (6).

1. William and Mary, 1688-9—1694. William III., 1702.—From youth upwards one idea had possessed the soul of *William of Orange*—that of breaking the power of Louis XIV.—and he valued his English kingdom chiefly as a means towards this end. Though weak in body, the energy of his spirit was unconquerable, and no danger ever daunted him. His manners however were cold, his temper sour, and he roused the English jealousy by placing men of his own nation about him. His wife was an amiable woman; but the *Jacobites*, or extreme Tories, who adhered to James, never ceased to taunt her for having ousted her father. Many Tories thought the deposition of the King wrong, and from this scruple, about four hundred clergymen and members of the Universities, with Sancroft and six other bishops at their head, resigned their preferments rather than swear allegiance to the new sovereigns. These men, who could boast that five out of the famous “Seven Bishops” were among them, were known as the *Non-jurors*.

2. Ireland.—As yet William was King of Ireland in little more than name. That country was divided between the Roman Catholic “Irishry,”—the original Irish, and the de-

scendants of the Norman-English settlers, probably about a million in number,—and the Protestant “Englishry,” consisting of about 200,000 English and Scotch colonists, who owned more than four-fifths of the property of Ireland, and whose inferiority in number was compensated by their superiority in wealth and civilization. The Lord Deputy of Ireland, Tyrconnel, invited James over from his refuge in France, and raising his standard with the motto, “Now or never! Now and for ever!” called his countrymen to arms. The whole Irish race rose in answer,—not that they cared for James, but because they desired independence,—and Tyrconnel soon mustered a mighty though half-savage host. Louis of France furnished arms, money, and officers, and James, thus equipped, landed in Ireland in March 1689, and held in Dublin a Parliament of his adherents, in which he gave his consent to *the great Act of Attainder*, whereby between two and three thousand Protestants were attainted of treason. The Englishry meanwhile stood gallantly at bay in *Enniskillen* and *Londonderry*. The latter city, under the government of *Major Henry Baker* and an aged clergyman, *George Walker*, was besieged by James’s forces; and though reduced to extremity of hunger, its defenders hardly able to keep their feet for very weakness, it held out for a hundred and five days, until relieved from England. At the same time the Enniskilleners routed the Jacobites at *Newton Butler*. In the summer of the next year, William himself went over to Ireland. England, dreading the power of Louis XIV., and provoked by his interference, had joined the general league of the chief powers of Europe against France. William’s departure therefore was straightway made the occasion of an attempt upon England by the French in concert with the Jacobites, and Herbert, now *Earl of Torrington*, was ignominiously worsted in an engagement with the French fleet off *Beachy Head*. But comfort came in the news of a

decisive victory won by William on the 1st of July, 1690, over the French and Irish at the *Boyne*. The conduct of the rival Kings was strikingly diverse. William, his sword in the left hand—for his other arm was crippled by a wound—led his troops through the Boyne river, and was foremost in the fight; James looked on from a safe distance, until, seeing the day going against him, he galloped off, and reviling his Irish army, made his way to the coast, whence he sailed for France. Meanwhile the French admiral, *Tourville*, finding that, contrary to the prediction of the exiled Jacobites, the country did not rise to join him, departed, after having sacked the defenceless town of Teignmouth. The reduction of Ireland to England was effected the next year by the Dutch General *Ginkell*, afterwards created *Earl of Athlone*, who gained, July 12th, 1691, the battle of *Aghrim* over the Irish and their French general, *St. Ruth*, who fell in the fight. *Limerick*, their last stronghold, surrendered to Ginkell in October, its gallant defender, *Patrick Sarsfield*, and as many as would follow him, being permitted to pass to the French service. The domination of the colonists was now assured, and rigorous laws were made to hold down the Roman Catholics, the bravest and best of whom, denied all chance of rising in their own land, entered the service of foreign states.

3. The War with France.—In 1692, during William's absence on the Continent, another French invasion was projected; but the allied English and Dutch fleets, commanded in chief by Admiral Russell, attacked and defeated Admiral Tourville in the Channel, chased the enemy to the Bay of *La Hogue*, and there burned his ships in the sight of James. There were great rejoicings at this victory, not merely because the people were proud of the exploit, but because it had saved the island from invasion. On land the struggle against France was chiefly carried on in the Netherlands,

where William led his army in person. At last Louis, worn out by the long war, consented to acknowledge the Prince of Orange as King of Great Britain; and this led to the general peace which was made at *Ryswick* in 1697. Although the English had not to fight on their own soil, this war put a great strain upon their resources. In 1692, the year of La Hogue, the *land-tax* was first imposed, and, this being found insufficient, the Government next raised money by a loan. Thus began the *National Debt*. Among the difficulties of the country must be reckoned the bad state of its silver coin, arising from the fraudulent practice of "clipping." The coinage of additional money, with its edges so milled that it could not be clipped without detection, seemed only to aggravate the evil; for every man tried to pay in light, and to be paid in heavy coin. At last, in 1696, an Act was passed for a new coinage, and while this was going on, much inconvenience and even hardship was caused by the scarcity of silver, although the Mint, with the great philosopher Isaac Newton at its head, coined faster than it had ever done before. Fortunately at this moment, when the patience of the nation was thus severely tried, the King happened to be in special favour, owing to the general indignation at a recently detected Jacobite conspiracy for his assassination on his way back from hunting. In the excitement caused by this discovery, more than four hundred of the Commons solemnly pledged themselves to stand by William in life or to avenge him in death, and their example was generally followed throughout the nation. The management of the re-coinage reflected great credit upon the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, *Charles Montague*, a young Whig, noted for bringing about the foundation, in 1694, of the *Bank of England*, on a plan devised by a Scotsman named *Paterson*.

4. Death of Mary.—In 1694, on the 28th December,

Queen Mary had died of small-pox. Not long afterwards, by her husband's orders, the unfinished palace of Greenwich was turned into an hospital for seamen of the Royal Navy ; and thus, in honour of her memory, was carried out the wish she had formed at the time when difficulty was found in providing for the many wounded at La Hogue. The additions to the palace were made by Sir Christopher Wren.

5. *The Spanish Succession.*—After the Peace of Ryswick came a time of sore mortification to William. Not only did the Commons insist on having the greater part of the army disbanded, but they further forced him to send away all his foreign troops, even his favourite Dutch Guards. Fresh ill-feeling arose between the King and the Commons on the subject of the disposal of forfeited land in Ireland, much of which he had bestowed on his personal friends. The Commons constrained him to give his assent to an Act for annulling all his Irish grants, and applying the forfeitures to the public service. In 1700 Charles King of Spain died childless, bequeathing his vast dominions to *Philip of Anjou*, a grandson of Louis XIV. To prevent such an increase of the French power at once became William's aim ; and his cause was served by the imprudence of the French King. In September 1701 James II. died, and Louis, in the face of the Treaty of Ryswick, recognized his son, whom the Whigs called "*the Pretender*," as King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. This roused general indignation. A Parliament met, which requested William to make no peace with France until reparation for this affront was made. The King's health was breaking down, but, nerved by thoughts of the work before him, he still bore up. In February 1702 when he was riding at Hampton Court, his horse fell over a mole-hill, and the King was thrown, and broke his collar-bone ; sinking under the shock, he died on the 8th March, in his fifty-second year. As Queen Mary had no children, the Crown,

according to the settlement made by the *Declaration* and *Bill of Rights*, passed to the Princess Anne of Denmark.

6. *Legislation*.—Chief among the statutes of this reign stands the *Bill of Rights*, which, after reciting the Declaration of the Convention, declared it, with some additions, to be law. The levying of money for the use of the Crown, without grant of Parliament, the keeping of a standing army in time of peace, unless by consent of Parliament, were herein declared illegal. The right of subjects to petition, of electors freely to choose their representatives, the right of the legislature to freedom of debate, the necessity of frequent parliaments, were affirmed. The methods by which in late years the administration of justice had been tampered with, the imposition of excessive fines, the infliction of cruel and unusual punishments, were condemned. The power, which James II. had illegally exercised, of *dispensing* with or setting aside laws by regal authority was abolished; and a Roman Catholic, or any one marrying a Roman Catholic, was made incapable of wearing the Crown. The *Toleration Act*, though not affording complete religious liberty, gave enough to satisfy the mass of the Protestant Dissenters; Roman Catholics and deniers of the Trinity were excluded from its benefits. The *oaths of allegiance* and *supremacy* were replaced by new and simpler forms, that of supremacy consisting mainly of a renunciation of the Pope's authority. The first *Mutiny Act* gave the sovereign a temporary power of punishing mutiny or desertion by the special jurisdiction known as *martial law*. Similar Acts, limited to a year's duration, are still the only means by which the Crown can legally keep an army. These statutes were all passed in the first year of William and Mary. In 1695 the press became free; hitherto nothing could be published without the licence of an officer appointed by the Government, but now this censorship was given up, and newspapers at once made their appearance. In the

next year was passed the *Act for regulating of trials in cases of treason*. Hitherto the law had placed those accused of high treason at great disadvantage, and before the Revolution such trials had often been little better than judicial murders; by this Act, among other provisions for securing the accused person a fair trial, it was enacted that he should have a copy of the indictment delivered to him five days before trial, and should be allowed to make his defence by counsel. The *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701, settled the crown, in default of heirs of Anne or of William, upon the granddaughter of James I. and daughter of Elizabeth Queen of Bohemia, the *Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover*, and her heirs, being Protestants. There were other families nearer in the order of inheritance than the House of Hanover, but they were passed over as being Roman Catholic. Some articles were inserted in the Act of Settlement, to take effect only after the succession under the new limitation to the House of Hanover. Of these, two of the most important were, that whosoever should hereafter come to the possession of the crown, should join in communion with the established Church of England; and that the judges should hold their offices during good behaviour, not as formerly, at the royal pleasure. In the following year a statute was passed which imposed on members of parliament, civil and military officers, ecclesiastics, lawyers and others, an *oath of abjuration*, by which they abjured the title of the pretended Prince of Wales, and bound themselves to maintain the settlement made of the crown.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ANNE.

Prince George of Denmark; Anne; the Duke and Duchess of Marlborough (1)—*War of the Spanish Succession; battles of Blenheim and Ramilies; taking of Gibraltar; the Earl of Peterborough; battle of Almanza; Sir Cloudeley Shovel; battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet* (2)—*the Union of England and Scotland* (3)—*rise of the Tories; Peace of Utrecht* (4)—*death of Anne* (5)—*Queen Anne's Bounty* (6).

I. *Anne, 1702-1714.*—The Queen's husband, *Prince George of Denmark*, of whom Charles II. said that he himself had tried him, drunk and sober, but there was nothing in him, was too insignificant in character to have any influence. From girlhood, *Anne* had been ruled by the handsome and domineering *Sarah*, wife of *Churchill*; and so close was their friendship that they corresponded with each other under the names of *Mrs. Morley* and *Mrs. Freeman*, the latter being adopted by the favourite to denote her frankness. *John Churchill, Earl*, and afterwards *Duke, of Marlborough*, who within a week of *Anne's* accession was made Captain General of the Forces, was the ablest man of his time as a general and statesman, though he owed his favour with *Anne* chiefly to his wife's influence. Brave though gentle, and of imperturbable serenity of temper, distinguished by the care and humanity which he showed towards prisoners of war, his character was yet stained by avarice and treachery. After having at the Revolution deserted James for William, he had since been disgraced for intriguing with James; nevertheless William had lately given him high command,

foreseeing, it is said, that he would be the moving spirit in the next reign. Though his wife sided with the Whigs, who supported the late King's war policy, Marlborough himself passed at the time for a Tory, and thereby gained increased influence with the Queen, who loved the Church and the Tories, whom she preferred to call "*the Church party*." A dislike of armed interference in continental politics continued to be a mark of a Tory until after the French Revolution, when the two parties changed places in that respect.

2. **War of the Spanish Succession.**—King William's last work, an alliance of England, Holland, the Emperor, and other European powers against Louis XIV. and his grandson, survived him. The war with France was shortly declared, the allies supporting the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria to the Spanish crown. Marlborough, in command of the allied English and Dutch forces, now entered upon that course of splendid achievements which gained him the high place he holds among generals. On the 2nd August, 1704, he won, in concert with the Imperial commander *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, the great battle of *Blenheim* over the French and Bavarians under *Marshal Tallard*, who was there taken prisoner. Marlborough, in reward of his services, received the royal manor of Woodstock, upon which was afterwards built the Palace of Blenheim. Another great battle, that of *Ramillies*, was won by him two years later on the 12th May; but meanwhile the allied arms had been less successful in the Peninsula, though the rock and fortress of *Gibraltar*, valuable as the key of the Mediterranean, were taken by *Admiral Sir George Rooke* and the Prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, and have ever since remained in the keeping of England. *Charles Mordaunt, Earl of Peterborough*, a clever but eccentric man, who flew about the world, seeing, it was said, more kings and more postilions than any other man in Europe, for a

while carried all before him in Spain ; but as his advice was disregarded, he left in disgust. After this, affairs were mismanaged, and in 1707 the allied English, Dutch, and Portuguese were, in the battle of *Almanza*, utterly routed by the Duke of Berwick, an illegitimate son of James II. Other disasters followed. *Sir Cloudesley Shovel*, who from a cabin-boy had risen to be one of the best of the English admirals, was lost with four of his vessels on the rocks of Scilly. It is said that he was thrown on shore, and reached, worn out with fatigue, the hut of a woman, by whom he was murdered for the sake of a ring and other valuable property he had upon him. The next year was more fortunate, Marlborough and Eugene gaining the battle of *Oudenarde*, and the island of *Minorca* being taken. Other successes brought Louis to seek terms of peace ; but the allies required more than he would yield, and, though his navy was swept from the seas and his people were starving, his kingdom yet nerved itself for another campaign, in which Marlborough gained the bloody and fruitless victory of *Malplaquet*.

3. The Union of England and Scotland.—The *Union of England and Scotland* into one Kingdom by the name of *Great Britain* was brought about in 1707. Thenceforth there was only one Parliament for the two countries, and *English*, *Welsh*, and *Scots* were all included in the common name of *British*. A national flag—the same as that which had been ordered by James I., but which had fallen into disuse—was appointed for the United Kingdom.

4. Ascendency of the Tories.—In 1709 it chanced that one *Dr. Sacheverel* preached two sermons, one before the Judges of Assize at Derby, the other before the Lord Mayor at St. Paul's, in which the Doctor spoke against the toleration granted to Dissenters, and put forward the then favourite Tory doctrine of *non-resistance*; that is, that nothing could justify a subject in taking up arms against his rightful

sovereign. The Whigs, who felt this as a slur upon the Revolution, impeached him ; he was condemned by the Lords, but his sentence was so light that the result was looked upon as a victory by his Tory friends ; and the common people, who were all for "High Church and Sacheverel," made great rejoicings. Soon after this, the Tories came into power, having on their side the Queen's reigning favourite, *Abigail Masham*, a bed-chamber woman who had gradually supplanted the haughty Duchess of Marlborough. The new Tory ministers, *Robert Harley*, *Earl of Oxford*, and *Henry St. John*, afterwards *Viscount Bolingbroke*, set themselves to put an end to the war, and this they brought about in an underhand manner, keeping their allies in the dark. Marlborough was charged with peculation, and dismissed from employment, and the Tory *Duke of Ormond* was sent out in his place, with secret orders not to undertake any considerable enterprise. The other allies, deserted by the British government, finally agreed to the *Peace of Utrecht* in 1713. By this Great Britain received the French colony of Acadie or *Nova Scotia*, and the island of *St. Christopher*, and kept Gibraltar and Minorca ; while the French King acknowledged Anne as Queen of Great Britain, guaranteed the succession of the House of Hanover, and engaged to make the Pretender withdraw from the French dominions. Yet the Jacobites placed great hopes in Bolingbroke, who appears to have intended to bring about the succession of the *Chevalier de St. George* (as the Pretender was more courteously called), whom he and other Jacobites urged, but in vain, to turn Protestant. This question of succession was brought more strongly before men's eyes by the death of the aged Princess Sophia, whereby her son *George Louis*, *Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg*, became heir to the throne, all Anne's children having died in their youth.

5. **Death of Anne.**—The Queen's death was hastened by

her agitation at a violent dispute in her presence between Oxford and Bolingbroke, who were now open rivals. Bolingbroke so far prevailed that Oxford was dismissed from his office of Lord High Treasurer. Within a week the Queen was struck by apoplexy, and died August 1, 1714. Before her death she defeated the hopes of Bolingbroke and the Jacobite party by delivering the Treasurer's staff to the Duke of Shrewsbury—the same Shrewsbury who had signed the invitation to the Prince of Orange—bidding him “use it for the good of her people.”

6. **Queen Anne's Bounty** is a still existing benefit which was conferred by Anne upon the Church by restoring to it for the increase of the poorer livings the first-fruits and tenths of benefices which were paid formerly to the Pope, and afterwards to Henry VIII. and his successors.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

GEORGE I.

George I.; impeachment of Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond; the Riot Act (1)—the Pretender (2)—the South Sea Scheme (3)—death of George (4)—the Septennial Act (5).

1. **House of Hanover or of Brunswick-Lüneburg.** George I., 1714-1727.—*George, Elector of Brunswick-Lüneburg* (otherwise of *Hanover*), was proclaimed King of Great Britain and Ireland without a single Jacobite stirring a step. But he made no great haste to take possession of his kingdom; and, whether through indifference, fear, or natural

slowness, let six weeks pass before he, in company with his eldest son, landed at Greenwich. The new ruler, though well received, was not a man to excite much loyalty. He was fifty-four years of age, small of stature, and awkward; he could speak no English, so that he had to be taught by rote a few words wherein to address his first Parliament; he had left his wife shut up in a German castle, and his private life was not such as to command any respect. As a King, he was honest and well-intentioned; but his excessive attachment to his native dominions proved a source of embarrassment to his ministers and of discontent to the nation; and, except as a symbol of Protestantism and constitutional government, he had never any attraction for his English subjects. His first ministry was composed almost wholly of Whigs; and the new Parliament proceeded to impeach Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond on charges of misconduct in the transactions relating to the Peace of Utrecht, and of intriguing with the Pretender. Bolingbroke had taken alarm early, and fled to France, whither Ormond soon followed him. Acts of attainder were passed against both the fugitives; Oxford, standing his ground, was sent to the Tower, but, within two years, was released on acquittal. These proceedings increased the discontent of the Tories, which had already broken out in riots. The disturbances became so serious as to lead to the passing of the *Riot Act*, under which an unlawful assembly which does not disperse on command of a magistrate becomes guilty of felony.

2. The Pretender.—On the 6th September, 1715, the *Earl of Mar* raised in the Highlands the standard of the Pretender, for whom the Jacobite gentlemen of Northumberland and Cumberland also took up arms. A similar rising was expected in the West of England; but this the government crushed by arresting the influential members of the party. The North-country rebels, together with those of the Scots who had joined

them, being defeated at Preston, surrendered on the 13th November, and the same day Mar's army was engaged by *John Campbell, Duke of Argyle*, at *Sheriff-Muir* in a drawn battle, which was practically a victory for the King. Later in the year the Pretender himself appeared in Scotland; but he found his affairs going so badly that he soon slipped away with Mar to France, and the insurgents broke up. Seven noblemen were sentenced to death for this attempt; of these three were respited, and two escaped, one of them, the *Earl of Nithsdale*, by the help of his wife, getting out of the Tower in woman's clothes the day before that which was fixed for his execution. The *Earl of Derwentwater* and *Viscount Kenmure*, together with about thirty other persons, all taken in arms, suffered death. This was not the only attempt in favour of the Pretender made during this reign. *Charles XII., King of Sweden*, being eager to revenge himself upon George for having bought from Denmark and added to Hanover the duchies of Bremen and Verden which had been taken from Charles, planned, in connexion with the Jacobites, an invasion of Scotland; but the conspiracy was discovered and crushed early in 1717. A fresh chance was afforded the Pretender by a war the next year between Great Britain and Spain. A Spanish force, under Jacobite refugees, was sent from Cadiz in 1719; but the greater part of the fleet which carried them was shattered by a storm, and constrained to return.

3. **The South Sea Scheme.**—In 1720 England went half mad over the famous *South Sea scheme*. The *South Sea Company* had a monopoly of trade to the Spanish coasts of South America, and, for the purpose of reducing the Public Debt, engaged with the government to buy up certain annuities which had been granted in the reign of William and Mary. The annuitants were invited to exchange their stock for that of the South Sea Company. A rage for speculation set in upon the country; the 100*l.* shares of the Company

went up to 1,000*l.*; then they fell, a panic followed, and thousands of families were ruined. The people became furious against the directors; and, though the estates of the latter were confiscated by Parliament for the benefit of the sufferers, the punishment was exclaimed against as too mild. *Robert Walpole*, whose financial skill was well known, became first minister of the Crown; and by his management the government was helped through its difficulties. The state of confusion into which the country was thrown, as well as the birth of a son to the Pretender, stirred up the Jacobites again to plot an invasion. *Francis Atterbury*, *Bishop of Rochester*, being found to be concerned in this conspiracy, was deprived of his bishoprick and banished.

4. **Death of George.**—In the summer of 1727, the King left England for Hanover, and, being struck by apoplexy on his road to Osnabrück, died in his carriage in the night of the 10th June. By his wife, *Sophia Dorothea, Princess of Zell*, he left one son, *George Augustus, Prince of Wales*, with whom he was for some time notoriously on bad terms.

5. **The Septennial Act.**—By a statute, known as the *Triennial Act*, passed under William and Mary, no Parliament could last longer than *three* years. But after the rebellion of 1715, when the government was loth to face a general election, this statute was repealed by another which lengthened to *seven* years the term for which a parliament might last. This—the *Septennial Act*, as it is called—is still law.

CHAPTER XL.

GEORGE II.

George II.; administration of Walpole (1)—war with Spain; Anson's voyage (2)—War of the Austrian Succession; battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy (3)—the Young Pretender; battle of Culloden; end of the Stuart line (4)—war with France; shooting of Byng; Pitt's administration; death of Wolfe; acquisition of Canada (5)—India; Clive; "the Black Hole" (6)—death of George (7)—reform of the kalendar (8)—the Eddystone Lighthouse (9)—rise of Methodism (10)—literature (11).

1. *George II., 1727-1760.*—*George II.*, like his father the late King, was German by birth, German in feeling and politics, attached to his native dominions, and for their sake ever interfering in Continental affairs. Like his father also, he was at variance with his son, *Frederick Prince of Wales*, a weak young man, who was popular chiefly because the King was unpopular. *George II.* could however speak English fluently, and, so far, he had the advantage over his predecessor. In character he was methodical, parsimonious, stubborn, and passionate, of an intrepid spirit, and fond of war. His private life was not creditable, yet he was, after his fashion, sincerely attached to his clever wife, *Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach*, who had the art of ruling without seeming to rule. For the first ten years of his reign he was managed by the Queen, and through her by Sir Robert Walpole, whose constant policy was to keep England at peace and himself in power. One of Walpole's financial plans however was very near displacing him. This was a scheme for extending the *Excise* duties, which were already most unpopular. The Tories and the discontented Whigs or "*Patriots*," combining against it, contrived to lash the country into such a fury that it was well-nigh ready to rebel.

Walpole therefore, though confident of the advantages of the measure, gave it up, saying that he would never be the minister to enforce taxes at the expense of blood.

2. **War with Spain.**—A similar clamour, excited by the means which the Spaniards took to check contraband trade with their South American colonies, and by their alleged cruelties towards English seamen, at last drove Walpole into a war with Spain in 1739. Except in the taking of *Porto Bello* by *Admiral Vernon* with six ships, the war was not very successful. *Commodore Anson*, who was sent out to harass the coasts of Chili and Peru, made a voyage round the world, in which he suffered terrible hardships, losing numbers of his crews from scurvy, and bringing home only his own ship, the *Centurion*. This expedition, though not politically profitable, raised the fame of British seamanship. Meanwhile Walpole, whose reluctance to enter upon this war had made him thoroughly unpopular, resigned, and thereupon was called to the House of Peers as *Earl of Orford*. His steady friend Queen Caroline had died in 1737.

3. **War of the Austrian Succession.**—In 1741 began the *War of the Austrian Succession*, in which Great Britain became entangled, and took the side opposed to France. The nation disliked being thus mixed up with Continental quarrels; and when Hanoverian and Hessian troops were taken into British pay, the indignation was great. "It is now too apparent," said *William Pitt*, the boldest speaker among the "Patriots," "that this powerful, this great, this mighty nation, is considered only as a province to a despicable Electorate." In the summer of 1743 the King joined his army in Germany, and defeated the French in the battle of *Dettingen*, where George fought on foot at the head of his right line. The battle of *Fontenoy*, 1745, in which the allies were beaten by the French under *Marshal Saxe*, is further memorable for the heroic courage

shown by the British and Hanoverian infantry. Peace was made at *Aix-la-Chapelle* (*Aachen*), in 1748.

4. *The Young Pretender*.—Early in this war the French government had secretly invited to France *Charles Edward Stuart* (who was called the *Young Pretender* and the *Young Chevalier*, to distinguish him from his father James the *Old Pretender*), and had planned an invasion of England in his favour. With this intent, an expedition put to sea in 1744, but it was scattered by a storm. The next year, 1745, Charles, with seven followers, landed in the Highlands, and there mustered a small force of adherents. After routing the royal general, Sir John Cope, at *Preston-Pans*, and receiving some small supplies of money and arms from France, Charles entered Cumberland, and with four or five thousand men, pushing on for London, advanced, to the great dismay of the capital, as far as *Derby*. But here the hearts of the rebel officers failed them; marvellous as their success had been, there was no such rising in their favour as Charles had reckoned upon. Jacobitism existed in England merely as a traditional faith, or as a method of expressing discontent, not as a belief for which men would peril their lives and properties. Charles, unwillingly yielding to the wishes of his officers, retreated to Scotland, and, after gaining a victory at *Falkirk*, was overthrown by the King's favourite son, *William Duke of Cumberland*, at *Culloden* on the 16th April, 1746. The English victory was tarnished by the cold-blooded slaughter of wounded enemies on the battle-field, and by the atrocities afterwards committed in the disaffected country—cruelties which gained for Cumberland the nickname of "*The Butcher*." For their share in this insurrection, known in popular Scottish phrase, from the year in which it took place, as "*the Forty-five*," the *Earl of Kilmarnock*, *Lords Balmerino* and *Lovat*, *Charles Radcliffe* (brother to the late Earl of Derwentwater), and a number of other per-

sons, nearly eighty in all, were put to death. An Act of Grace in the next reign restored their estates to the descendants of those who had forfeited them. As for Charles, he wandered alone among the Highlands for five months hunted from place to place by the soldiers, till, after many perils, he escaped in a French vessel. His future life was a sad one. Driven, in accordance with a stipulation of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, from France, he wandered about the Continent, forming vain schemes for another invasion, and falling at last into degrading habits of drunkenness. He died Jan. 30, 1788, leaving no legitimate children. His younger brother *Henry Benedict, Cardinal York*, died in 1807, and thus ended the ill-starred line of Stuart.

5. War with France.—Disputes about the boundaries of the English and French settlements in *North America* soon plunged the country again into strife. The French encroached upon the English colonists; these resisted, and thus the mother countries were ere long engaged in hostilities. The war began disastrously for the British, the most grievous blow being the taking of the island of Minorca, in 1756, by the French; while *Admiral Byng*, sent out from Gibraltar to relieve the garrison, sailed back again after a partial and indecisive engagement with the French squadron. This slackness cost the unfortunate admiral his life; he was tried the next year by court-martial, and shot for not having done his utmost. The King had provided as far as possible for the safety of Hanover by entering into an alliance with *Frederick the Great of Prussia*, and thus England was drawn into the *Seven Years' War* between that prince and a confederacy of Continental powers. The English were at this time in the depths of despondency, regarding themselves as utterly degenerate, and ready to be enslaved. Since Walpole there had been no great minister in power. The popular favourite, Pitt, was now made Secretary of State, but he was too much

disliked by the King to be allowed to keep his office long. He knew his own powers : " I am sure," he said, " that I can save this country, and that nobody else can." In June 1757, the King was constrained again to accept him as his minister. Under his administration the war was carried on with new vigour, till at last the tide turned, and successes by sea and land came as fast as misfortunes had before. In November 1759, *Admiral Hawke* gained off the coast of Brittany a signal victory over the French. In September the same year, *James Wolfe*, a young general of Pitt's choosing, scaled the almost inaccessible heights on which *Quebec* stands, completely defeated the French army, and fell in the moment of victory. As he lay dying, he heard an officer exclaim, " They run ! " " Who run ? " asked Wolfe, raising himself. " The enemy." " Then I die happy." Five days later *Quebec* capitulated, and within a year the whole of the French colony of *Canada* was in the hands of the British.

6. *India*.—In *India* an empire was being won. The chief European powers there were the French and the English East India Companies. Successive Charters and Acts had raised the English Company almost into a sovereign power ; it kept a small army, held law courts, and had authority to make peace and war with non-Christian princes and people. Still the object it pursued was simply the Indian trade, of which constantly renewed Acts of Parliament gave it a monopoly, and it did not at first aspire to empire. The foundations of its dominion were laid by *Robert* (afterwards *Lord*) *Clive*, a young officer of the Company, who, though without any military training, proved himself a great general and statesman. *Clive* broke the power of the French, who at one time seemed about to gain the pre-eminence in the Peninsula, and made the English Company the real lords of *Bengal* by the great victory he won over

the Nabob of that province, *Suraj-ad-dowla*, at *Plassy*, June 23rd, 1757. *Suraj-ad-dowla* had in the preceding year taken the English settlement at *Calcutta*,—an event memorable for the horrible fate of the English prisoners there captured, who, a hundred and forty-six in number, were, in the hottest season, crowded into a cell not twenty feet square, known as the "*Black Hole*." Only twenty-three of the captives survived the night.

7. *Death of George*.—In the midst of these conquests, George died suddenly at Kensington of heart disease, Oct. 25, 1760. His eldest son Frederick Prince of Wales having died in 1751, the King was succeeded by his grandson, *George William Frederick, Prince of Wales*. Between the accession of George II. and the withdrawal of the country from the Seven Years' War in 1763, the National Debt was more than doubled.

8. *Reform of the Kalendar*.—In 1751 was passed the statute for the reform of the kalendar. The *Julian Kalendar* (so called because it owed its origin to Julius Cæsar) made the year too long at the rate of three days nearly in four hundred years. In the 16th century the error had been corrected under a regulation of *Pope Gregory XIII.*, and the alteration, or *New Style*, had been in course of time accepted by most Christian countries. But in the British dominions people still went on with the *Old Style*, until at length the day they called the *first* of the month was in other lands the *twelfth*—in short, they were eleven days wrong in their reckoning. By the statute of 1751, these nominal days were dropped out of the month of September, 1752, and the *New Style* adopted. The memory of the ignorant opposition made to this reform is preserved in a picture by the contemporary painter *Hogarth*, where a Whig candidate for Parliament is represented as flattering the prejudices of the mob by having a banner inscribed,

"*Give us our eleven days.*" By the same statute, the legal year, instead of beginning, as formerly, on the 25th March, is reckoned from the 1st January.

9. **The Eddystone Lighthouse.**—Three lighthouses have been built one after another on the *Eddystone Rock*. The first was swept away in a storm, together with its architect Winstanley and the workmen who were busied in repairing it; the second, built mainly of timber, was destroyed by fire in 1755. To *John Smeaton*, a great civil engineer, was entrusted the task of replacing it, which he did by the present fine tower of stone, completed in 1759. Smeaton also made Ramsgate harbour, improved wind and water mills, and did many other useful works.

10. **Rise of Methodism.**—In this reign began the religious movement known as *Methodism*, of which the promoters were two clergymen of the Church of England, *George Whitefield* and *John Wesley*. The name of *Methodists* first sprang up at Oxford, where it was given in scorn to a small association of young members of the University, who adopted a devout and rigid method of life, kept fast days, meditated and prayed, and visited the prisoners and the sick. Of this band were John Wesley, his brother Charles, afterwards noted as a writer of hymns, and Whitefield, who, after he had taken orders, began to preach with wonderful effect. His earnestness, his eloquence, his vehement action, and fine voice, which, it is said, could be heard a mile off, gave the first impulse to Methodism, which was then simply an awakening of a spirit of enthusiastic devotion, and that too among classes who had hitherto been neglected. When the parish churches were closed against the new teacher, Whitefield preached in the open air, which he first did to the colliers near Bristol, moving them to tears by his fervid oratory; and his example was followed by his associate Wesley. Methodism was frowned upon by the clergy, and

held up to ridicule on the stage ; its preachers were pelted and maltreated by the mob, but nevertheless it grew and prospered. The two great preachers however ere long diverged from each other in opinion : Whitefield, who died early, was the leader of the Calvinist section of the Methodists ; Wesley, who died in 1791 at the age of eighty-seven, was the founder of the sect called after him, *Wesleyan*. He gave his followers a complete and elaborate organization, although it was not his intention to found a separate sect, but rather an order or society within the Church of England. The Methodists however, being harassed and almost constrained to declare themselves dissenters, gradually formed themselves into a distinct body.

II. Literature from the Revolution to George III.—

The Whigs of the Revolution were fortunate in being able to show on their side some of the chief names of the age. To them belonged Isaac Newton, and the great jurist and politician, *Lord Somers*, who was one of the counsel for the Seven Bishops, and chairman of the committee by which the Declaration of Right was drawn up. Of them also was *John Locke*, who in 1684 had, for no crime but his friendship with the Whig leader Lord Shaftesbury, been ejected by the government from his studentship at Christ Church, Oxford. A staunch supporter of civil and religious liberty, he wrote in defence of toleration ; while his high fame as a philosopher was established by the publication in 1690 of his *Essay concerning Human Understanding*. A less illustrious writer of the same political views was *Gilbert Burnet* (made Bishop of Salisbury after the Revolution), a clergyman of Scottish birth, author of the *History of the Reformation in England*, the first volume of which gained him the honour of a vote of thanks from Parliament, which was then excited by the Popish Plot. He left a *History of his Own Time*, which was published after his death in 1715,

The age of Anne was long looked upon as the most brilliant period in English literature. Among its chief ornaments was the Whig *Joseph Addison*, who wrote both poetry and prose, but was far superior in the latter. In his own day his most admired work was the tragedy of *Cato*, now little esteemed; with modern readers his fame rests on the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*, two periodical papers set on foot by his friend *Richard Steele*, to which Addison was the chief and the best contributor. His peculiar charm lay in his refined and delicate humour, and he did the greatest service to morality by purifying literature from the taint of the Restoration, and showing that wit was not necessarily allied with vice, nor virtue with dulness. *Daniel De Foe*, a dissenter, who early in Anne's reign had been set in the pillory for writing an ironical pamphlet professing to express the views of a bigoted churchman, was the author of one of the most renowned and popular of English fictions, the *Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*. His skill lay in giving such an air of reality to his tales—for he wrote many—that the reader can hardly believe them to be merely works of imagination. Similar power was possessed by the great satirist *Jonathan Swift*, who went over from the Whig to the Tory party, and became Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin. The best-known and most read of his works is *Gulliver's Travels*, the hero of which describes nations of pygmies, of giants, of speaking and reasoning horses, with a simplicity and minuteness which make his wildest marvels seem like truth. Under this form Swift conveyed the most stinging satire on the court of George I., the politics of Europe, the follies of speculative philosophers, and the vices of mankind. Another Tory wit, *John Arbuthnot*, is believed to have been the author of the *History of John Bull*, a burlesque account of the negotiations and war of the Spanish Succession.

From this satire arose the now familiar national name of "*John Bull*." To the reign of George II. belong the famous novels, *Pamela*, and the *Histories of Clarissa Harlowe* and *Sir Charles Grandison*, by *Samuel Richardson*, whose name stands high among English authors, though his tales are too long-winded to be popular at the present day. Three other noted writers of fiction, *Henry Fielding*, *Tobias Smollett*, and *Laurence Sterne*, are best remembered by their respective novels of *Tom Jones*, *Roderick Random*, and *Tristram Shandy*. Smollett also wrote a History of England, part of which is generally appended as a continuation to the *History of England* by the Scottish philosopher, *David Hume*, who only carried his work down to the Revolution. This work of Hume's became the generally received version of English history—a position which it hardly deserved, as, though good in style, it is one-sided and inaccurate. *Matthew Prior*, noted as a writer of light and sparkling verse, flourished in the reigns of William and Anne. *Alexander Pope*, who was born in 1688, and died in 1744, is one of the great poets of England. His *Rape of the Lock*, a mock-heroic tale of a fashionable beauty whose long ringlet was secretly cut off by one of her admirers, and his moral and satirical poems, among them the *Dunciad*, in which he fell savagely upon the inferior authors of his day, are his chief works. His translation of the *Iliad* of Homer is a fine poem in itself, though he caught little or nothing of the spirit and tone of his original. Terseness, point, harmony, and cutting satire often becoming ferocious and coarse, are Pope's characteristics; his versification was the admiration of his age, for before him no one had written heroic couplets with such smoothness. In creed he was a Roman Catholic, in character violent and spiteful, and in person small and deformed. *John Gay* was the author of the

Beggars' Opera, of the *Fables*, and of the popular ballad of *Black-Eyed Susan*. *Nicholas Rowe*, who died in 1718, was a playwright of note, although one of his best tragedies, the *Fair Penitent*, was stolen from Massinger, whose works had fallen into neglect. Addison, as has been already said, wrote poetry, and some of his hymns are to be found in most hymn-books. The hymns also of *Isaac Watts*, a dissenting minister, are still among the most popular compositions of their kind. Equally well known are the beautiful *Morning and Evening Hymns* of *Thomas Ken*, the good Bishop of Bath and Wells, who bore his part among the Seven Bishops, and who yet refused, from conscientious scruples, to withdraw his allegiance from James. The poems called the *Seasons*, which have always been popular, though they are marred by frequent pompousness and affectation, are the work of *James Thomson*, a Scot by birth, who died in 1748. Thomson, in conjunction with *David Mallet*, wrote the masque of *Alfred*, which contains the fine national ode of *Rule, Britannia*. This song, though commonly attributed to Thomson, is thought by some to have been written by Mallet; the music to it was composed by *Dr. Arne*. *Edward Young*, who flourished under Anne and the first two Georges, wrote the *Night Thoughts*, a series of poems in proof of the immortality of the soul and against unbelief in Christianity. *William Collins*, who died in 1756, was in his own time little appreciated, although he was one of the best lyric poets of his century. He is however surpassed by *Thomas Gray*, whose famous *Elegy in a Country Churchyard* was published in 1749. A scholar and student, devoting himself chiefly to reading, Gray wrote but little, and with great care. Among his best pieces is the noble ode of the *Bard*, which, being founded upon the tale of the massacre of the Welsh bards, unluckily branded Edward I. with the undeserved name of tyrant.

CHAPTER XLI.

GEORGE III.

George III. (1)—*Treaty of Paris* (2)—*John Wilkes* (3)—*revolt of the North American Colonies*; *foundation of the United States*; *war with France*; *death of Chatham*; *war with Spain and Holland*; *invasion of Jersey*; *Rodney's victory of the 12th April*; *siege of Gibraltar* (4)—*the Lord George Gordon Riots* (5)—*insanity of the King*; *joy at his recovery*; *the Prince of Wales*; *Pitt and Fox* (6)—*War of the French Revolution*; *Lord Howe's victory of the 1st June*; *suspension of cash payments by the Bank of England*; *battle of St. Vincent*; *Nelson*; *mutiny of the Channel Fleet*; *press-gangs*; *mutiny at the Nore*; *battle of Camperdown*; *Napoleon Buonaparte*; *his expedition to Egypt*; *battle of the Nile*; *defence of Acre*; *death of Tippoo Sahib*; *confederacy of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden*; *battle of Copenhagen*; *battle of Alexandria*; *Peace of Amiens* (7)—*war with Buonaparte*; *detention of English travellers*; *Buonaparte seizes Hanover*; *threatens to invade Great Britain*; *overthrows the Austrians and Russians*; *battle of Trafalgar*; *death of Nelson*; *death of Pitt*; *Berlin Decree*; *bombardment of Copenhagen* (8)—*Arthur Wellesley*; *battle of Assye*; *Peninsular War*; *battle of Vimiera*; *death of Sir John Moore*; *battles of Talavera, Salamanca, Vitoria, and Toulouse*; *fall of Buonaparte* (9)—*return of Buonaparte to France*; *battle of Waterloo*; *surrender of Buonaparte* (10)—*war with the United States*; *bombardment of Algiers* (11)—*National Debt*; *general distress*; *the Luddites*; *death of George III.*; *Princess Charlotte* (12)—*Royal Marriage Act* (13)—*independence of the Irish Parliament*; *Irish Rebellion of 1798*; *Union of Great Britain and Ireland* (14)—*Indian affairs*; *Ceylon*; *discoveries and improvements* (15)—*Howard*; *abolition of the Slave Trade*; *Romilly* (16)—*literature, end of 18th century* (17)—*early 19th century literature* (18)—*painting* (19).

I. *George III., 1760-1820.*—*George III.*, eldest son of Frederick Prince of Wales and Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, though not highly educated, was pleasing in manners

and appearance, well-conducted, and well-intentioned. The nation, hitherto constantly grumbling at its foreign kings, who were never so happy as when out of their kingdom, hailed with delight the accession of a born Englishman; and the Tories, who during the late reigns had been in the position, unusual to them, of the party opposed to the court, transferred the loyalty formerly bestowed on the House of Stuart to their new ruler. About a year after his accession the King married *Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz*.

2. *Treaty of Paris*.—The "*Great Commoner*," as Pitt was called, resigned office in 1761, on his proposal to declare war against Spain—which had recently allied itself with France—being opposed by his colleagues. The war nevertheless broke out; but peace was made as soon as possible with both countries by the *Treaty of Paris*, 1763, under which Great Britain kept Canada and some other conquests from France, regained Minorca, and obtained *Florida* from Spain.

3. *John Wilkes*.—With the peace began a time of fierce factions and unpopular ministers. In 1763 the government made itself odious by its illegal arrest of *John Wilkes* for libelling it in a paper called the *North Briton*. Wilkes afterwards became still more famous as the subject of a struggle between the House of Commons and the freeholders of Middlesex, who maintained their right to return him for their representative, although, having been expelled the House, he was—so the Commons, by a stretch of power, had resolved—incapable of being elected into that parliament.

4. *The American War of Independence*.—The severance of thirteen North-American colonies from the mother country took place in this reign. The government had attempted to tax these colonies to defray in part the expenses of protecting them; the colonists denied the right of the British

legislature to tax them while they were unrepresented in Parliament. The first measure of this kind, the *Stamp Act*, was repealed within a year, as the colonists were on the verge of rebellion; but a duty of threepence a pound laid on tea was retained as an assertion of right. Upon this the men of *Boston* in Massachusetts threw overboard the cargoes of tea brought into their harbour, and as severe measures were taken by way of punishment, the breach widened till actual war began; and on the 4th July, 1776, the colonies, under the name of the *United States of America*, declared their independence. The capitulation in the next year of the British *General Burgoyne*, at Saratoga, led to the acknowledgment by France of the new States, and the consequent extension of the war to that country. Pitt, now *Earl of Chatham*, had protested against the taxation of the colonies, but he could not bear the idea of seeing the British Empire dismembered by France. Though very ill, he insisted on going down to the House to speak against yielding at this crisis. In the act of addressing the Peers, he sank down in a fit; and, after lingering a few weeks, he died, May 11th, 1778. Spain joined France in 1779; and within two years Great Britain found another foe in Holland. The capitulation in 1781 of *Earl Cornwallis* to the French and Americans at Yorktown was the crowning disaster; and at last the King unwillingly consented to recognize the United States. Among the memorable events of this war are the French invasion of Jersey, which was defeated by a gallant young officer, *Major Pierson*, who fell in the fight; *Admiral Sir George Rodney's* victory, April 12th, 1782, in the West Indies over the French fleet, whose admiral, the *Count de Grasse*, was compelled to strike; and the famous defence of Gibraltar by *General Eliott* against the forces of France and Spain for three years and seven months. Peace was made in 1783, and Minorca and Florida

were given back to Spain. In North America, *Canada*, *Nova Scotia*, *New Brunswick*, *Newfoundland*, and the *Hudson's Bay country* still remained part of the British Empire.

5. **The Lord George Gordon Riots.**—In June 1780, there were great riots in London; the populace, led by the half-crazed *Lord George Gordon*, being inflamed by the repeal of some enactments against Roman Catholics. For nearly a week the capital was in the power of a furious mob, who burned Newgate, and destroyed the fine library of the Chief Justice, Lord Mansfield.

6. **Pitt and Fox.**—In 1788 the King was afflicted with insanity, and though he recovered for a time, he had fresh attacks. About 1811 he permanently lost his reason, after which his eldest son, *George Augustus Frederick, Prince of Wales*, ruled in his stead as Regent. There was great joy at his first recovery; for, though his obstinacy of disposition had at one time made him unpopular, of late his kindly manners and simple life had endeared him to his subjects; while the Prince was thought so ill of that his rule was dreaded. The leading statesmen of the day were *Charles James Fox*, and *William Pitt*, second son of Lord Chatham. The first was a man of ability and eloquence, generous and patriotic, but a gambler, and disliked by the King as the companion and supposed corrupter of the Prince of Wales. Pitt, the rival of Fox, and his equal in talents and eloquence, had become prime minister in his twenty-fifth year, and his power surpassed even that of his father.

7. **War of the French Revolution.**—In 1789 there began in France the political troubles which led to the *Great French Revolution*, in which the King, *Louis XVI.*, lost both his crown and his life, and a Republic was set up. Pitt was at first inclined to leave France to arrange its own affairs; but as the Republicans plainly showed an intention to extend their

principles by force of arms, and their violence and crimes called forth a strong feeling against them among the English upper and middle classes, war broke out, the French being the first to declare it. *Admiral Earl Howe*, on the 1st June, 1794, gained a hard-won battle in the Channel, and the English felt justly proud of the humanity they had shown in saving the lives of drowning enemies, whose government had only five days before forbidden quarter to be given to any Englishman or Hanoverian. But the land operations were for the most part signal failures, and Great Britain, some of her allies having fallen off, sought, but ineffectually, for peace. There was much discontent at home ; while the government was harsh and even arbitrary, and the cost of the war was heavy, the Bank of England being, in February 1797, so drained that it stopped cash payments. Next month came the news that on the 14th February *Sir John Jervis*, with only fifteen sail of the line to the enemy's twenty-five, had defeated, off *Cape St. Vincent*, the fleet of Spain, then in alliance with France. In this action two ships were boarded and taken by Commodore *Horatio Nelson*, the greatest of the many great sailors of Britain. But the trust of the nation in its navy received an alarming shock from the sudden mutiny of the Channel Fleet, when ordered to sea. The sailors were not without grievances to excuse them. The Crown had a right to impress seamen, and the press-gangs, hated and feared in every port, carried men off by force to the King's ships, where the pay was small and the food bad. The sailors demanded an increase of wages to be secured to them by statute, and a pardon ; and, after some delay, Lord Howe was sent to meet the mutineer leaders with the required Act and the King's pardon in his hand. On the 17th May the fleet put to sea. A second and more violent mutiny broke out in the ships at the Nore, but, as this did not extend to the other fleets, obedience

was re-established in a few weeks, and the ringleaders were tried and executed. The sailors made ample atonement by fighting valiantly in the victory won October 11th, by *Admiral Adam Duncan*, off *Camperdown*, over *Admiral Van Winter* and the fleet of the Dutch, who at that time formed a Republic dependent upon France. For the next eighteen years the history of Europe is the history of *Napoleon Buonaparte*, who by surpassing military genius raised himself to be despotic ruler of France, and annexed or reduced to vassalage all the western part of the Continent of Europe. In 1798, when he was still only a general of the French Republic, he undertook an expedition to Egypt, escaping on his passage Nelson and the English fleet, who were looking out for him. After Buonaparte had landed, Nelson found the French fleet lying in the Bay of Aboukir, and there defeated it in the great *Battle of the Nile*, August 1, 1798. Being wounded in the head, he was carried below, when the surgeon left the patient then under his hands to attend to him. "No!" said Nelson, "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." For this victory he was created *Baron Nelson of the Nile*. *Acre* was gallantly held against Buonaparte by *Sir Sidney Smith* and the Turks; while *Tippoo Sahib*, *Sultan of Mysore* in India, an old foe of England, to whom the French gave hopes of aid, was vanquished and slain at the storming of *Seringapatam* by *General David Baird*. In December 1800, Russia, Denmark, and Sweden formed a confederacy to resist the code of maritime law upheld by England, but the death of the Czar soon put an end to this war, during which Nelson took or destroyed the Danish fleet in the battle of *Copenhagen*. In Egypt the battle of *Alexandria*, March 21, 1801, was gained by *Sir Ralph Abercromby* over the French, who before the end of the year evacuated that country. Wearied of war, Great Britain, which had once haughtily

declined negotiation with Buonaparte, was now glad to conclude a peace at *Amiens*, 1802, although nearly all her conquests were thereby surrendered.

8. War with Buonaparte.—The peace was short-lived, a dispute about the possession of *Malta* leading to the renewal of hostilities in 1803. In retaliation for the seizure of French vessels without a formal declaration of war, a practice which England maintained to be lawful, Buonaparte arrested all the English in France, 10,000 peaceful travellers, and detained them for the next eleven years. He seized Hanover, and collected troops and transports at Boulogne for the invasion of Great Britain. The nation boldly prepared itself for the expected struggle, nearly 400,000 volunteers being quickly enrolled. In August 1805, Buonaparte, who had now taken the title of *Emperor of the French*, determined at last to cross the Channel; but the fleet on which he counted for the protection of his transports had been chased up and down the seas by the British, and was now, together with that of his ally Spain, blockaded in Cadiz. He turned away, and swooping upon the armies of Austria and Russia, with which countries Pitt had formed a coalition, laid them prostrate. Lord Nelson, meanwhile, as soon as the French and Spanish fleets came out, attacked them off *Cape Trafalgar*, Oct. 21, 1805, hoisting, before the action began, the famous signal, "*England expects every man to do his duty.*" Proudly careless of his life, he stood on the deck of his ship, the *Victory*, with the stars of the different orders with which he had been invested glittering on his breast, thus making himself a mark for the enemy's riflemen. In the heat of the action he received his death-wound from a musket ball, and, though the victory was so complete as to put an end to all plans of invasion, the joy of Britain was clouded by sorrow for the loss of her hero. Another great man died early the next year—Pitt, whose heart had been

broken by Buonaparte's triumph over the coalition. The French conqueror now set himself to ruin British trade, issuing, in revenge for the blockade of the ports between Brest and the Elbe, the *Berlin Decree*, which declared a blockade of the British Isles, and prohibiting the Continent, as far as his power reached, from all correspondence or trade with them. Retaliatory orders were issued by the English government, and further orders by Buonaparte, till between them the whole foreign trade of neutrals was stopped. In August 1807, *Copenhagen* was bombarded by the British, in order to force the Danes to give up their fleet, which was understood to have been placed at the disposal of Buonaparte for an invasion of England.

9. *The Peninsular War.*—At last Britain found a soldier who could match Napoleon—*Arthur Wellesley*, who had distinguished himself in India, of which country his brother the Marquess Wellesley was Governor-general, and where he himself had carried on a successful war with the *Mahratta* chiefs, over whom he gained the battle of *Assye*, September 23, 1803. In 1808, Buonaparte having seized the kingdoms of *Portugal* and *Spain*, the Spanish patriots called upon England for help, which was promptly given, and thus began the *Peninsular War*, an obstinate struggle of six years, in which Sir Arthur Wellesley, though not as yet opposed to Buonaparte himself, triumphed over several of his generals. On the 21st August he defeated the French general *Junot* at *Vimiera*, but his superior officer would not follow up the victory, and the enemy was allowed to evacuate Portugal under the *Convention of Cintra*. Towards the end of the year Sir *John Moore* entered Spain, but being forced to retreat, fell at *Coruña*, January 16, 1809. Wellesley, being soon afterwards raised to the chief command, henceforth conducted the war with great generalship. On the 28th July, he defeated *Marshal Victor* at *Talavera*, an achieve-

ment for which he was raised to the peerage as *Viscount Wellington*. He had many difficulties in carrying on the war; for, while the French generals took by force everything they needed, the British generals, allies of Spain, had no such resource, and were hard put to it for provisions. His perseverance however triumphed over every obstacle. Among the celebrated actions of the war are the storming of *Ciudad Rodrigo*, *Badajos*, and *San Sebastian*; the victory of *Salamanca* over *Marshal Marmont*, July 22, 1812; and that of *Vitoria* on the 21st June, 1813. Step by step the French, now commanded by *Marshal Soult*, were driven across the Pyrenees into their own country, where the battle of *Toulouse* was fought, April 10, 1814; while the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia, now allies of England, had already entered Paris. Buonaparte abdicated, and was allowed to hold the sovereignty of the little isle of *Elba*.

10. *Battle of Waterloo*.—Not a year had passed when Buonaparte returned to France. His old soldiers rallied round him, while the English commander-in-chief, now Duke of Wellington, and the Prussian general *Blücher*, gathered their forces together in the Netherlands. After a severe engagement between the English and French at *Quatre Bras*, Wellington and Buonaparte joined battle near *Waterloo*, June 18, 1815. The day was stubbornly contested, the British standing with the utmost firmness for more than five hours, until the Prussians, as they had promised, came up to their support. The Imperial Guard, the flower of Buonaparte's army, then advancing to the charge against the British, was driven back; upon this, Buonaparte, seeing that all was lost, fled, and the victory was complete. The allies thereupon entered Paris; while Buonaparte, finding it impossible to carry out his design of escaping to the United States, surrendered himself on board the British man-of-war *Bellerophon*, and was sent captive to St. Helena, where he

ended his days. The conquests which were kept by Great Britain at the end of these wars were the *Cape of Good Hope*, the Dutch possessions in *Ceylon*, and *Berbice* and other Dutch settlements in Guiana; the islands of *Mauritius* and the *Seychelles*, taken from the French; some West Indian islands, from the French and Spaniards; and in Europe, the islands of *Malta* and *Heligoland*, the latter of which had belonged to Denmark.

11. War with the United States. Bombardment of Algiers.—In 1812 war was declared against Great Britain by the United States, who were irritated at the damage to their trade arising out of the orders issued in retaliation for the Berlin Decree, and who disputed the claim of Great Britain to impress her subjects found on board American vessels. This contest, in which the United States attempted, though without success, to conquer Canada, was brought to an end early in 1815. The last military operation of this reign was the English and Dutch bombardment in 1816 of *Algiers*, whose *Dey* or prince was thereby compelled to set free nearly two thousand Christian slaves.

12. Home Affairs.—The National Debt had been more than trebled by the war; and as years of strife had impoverished all Europe, there was now scarcely any foreign market for British manufactures, and little demand for labour at home. In 1816 came a season of scarcity, and with wheat rising to famine prices, and a surplus of labour, the distress and discontent of the people were great. The "*Luddites*," (that is, bands of workmen leagued to break the stocking and lace frames which interfered with their employment,) who had first arisen in 1812, and had never been thoroughly put down, now revived with new violence. The blind and aged George III. died, January 29, 1820, at Windsor Castle, leaving six sons and five daughters. His eldest son, the Prince Regent, who had borne rule for the last nine years,

had only one child, *Princess Charlotte Augusta*, who in 1816 married *Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg*, and died the next year.

13. **The Royal Marriage Act.**—In 1772 was passed the *Royal Marriage Act*, by which the descendants of George II. (other than the issue of princesses married into foreign families) are incapacitated from marrying under the age of twenty-five without the consent of the sovereign. After that age, marriage may be contracted upon due notice, unless both Houses of Parliament signify their disapprobation. The King's anger against his brothers, the Dukes of Gloucester and of Cumberland, who had both made marriages which displeased him, led to this measure.

14. **Irish Affairs.**—In 1782 *Ireland* obtained the independence of its Parliament, thus ceasing to be dependent upon Great Britain, though subject to the same King. During the War of the French Revolution an association of malcontents called the *United Irishmen* entered into correspondence with France, from which more than one expedition was sent to their aid. Of these the most formidable, under *General Hoche*, was scattered by a tempest; a smaller one in 1798 made its way into Longford, where it was constrained to surrender, while the United Irishmen, who rose in rebellion, were put down with cruel severities. After this outbreak had been quelled, Ireland was, on the 1st January, 1801, united to Great Britain, and thenceforth sent her representatives to the British Parliament. The cross of the patron saint of Ireland, *St. Patrick*, was at the same time added to those of St. George and St. Andrew on the national flag.

15. **Indian Affairs. Discoveries and Improvements.**—During the long reign of George III. there were many wars in India, *Hyder Ali*, *Rajah of Mysore*, his son and successor *Tippoo*, and the Mahratta chiefs *Scindia* and *Holkar*, being among our most formidable enemies. *Warren Hastings*,

who in 1774 became the first Governor-general, ranks as one of the greatest of English statesmen who have borne rule in the East; and to his abilities it was owing that at the close of the American War of Independence, Great Britain, whilst losing elsewhere, had increased her power in India. Hastings was in 1786 impeached by the Commons on charges of injustice, oppression, and extortion; but after a trial by the House of Lords, which was spun out over seven years, was acquitted. Lord Cornwallis, who became Governor-general in 1786, waged a successful war with Tippoo Sahib; and the British dominion was still further strengthened and extended under the governorships of the *Marquess Wellesley* and the *Marquess of Hastings*. The whole of Ceylon was also in 1815 brought under British rule. New openings for colonization were made by the researches of *Captain James Cook*, who in 1768 started on the first of his voyages. In the course of these he sailed round *New Zealand*, which seems to have been unvisited by Europeans since its discovery by the Dutchman *Tasman* in 1642, and surveyed the eastern coast of *New Holland* or *Australia*, to which he gave the name of *New South Wales*: he also discovered *New Caledonia*. On his third voyage, in 1779, when the great navigator was at the *Sandwich Islands*, a group which he had discovered and named, he was slain in a sudden fray with the natives. Among his other high merits, Cook was distinguished by the justice and fairness of his dealings with the tribes he visited, and by his care and success in preserving his crews from that former scourge of seamen, the scurvy. Some years after his death *New South Wales* was colonized as a place of transportation for criminals. *Van Diemen's Land* or *Tasmania*, which had been discovered by *Tasman*, and *New Zealand* also, began to be colonized in the early part of the nineteenth century. Not less important were the triumphs of science and enterprise at home. Dr.

Edward Jenner, whose name should ever be remembered with gratitude, was the inventor of *vaccination* as a preventive of small-pox, his first experiment being made in 1796. Great advances were made in astronomy and chemistry, and vast improvements were effected in the arts of industry, which raised Britain to her present position as a manufacturing country. *Navigable canals* had begun to be constructed. Early in the reign of George III., *James Brindley* made the famous canal from Worsley to Manchester, a work of which the engineering difficulties were then thought so great that Brindley and his employer *Francis Egerton, Duke of Bridgewater*, were looked on as madmen for engaging in it. The manufacture of *pottery* was raised to a flourishing condition by *Josiah Wedgwood*; and that of *iron*, by *Dr. Roebuck's* process of smelting by pit-coal instead of charcoal. Machinery was applied to spin and weave cotton, the spinning frame being first made in 1768 by *Richard Arkwright*, originally a barber of Bolton. But the crowning achievement of the age was that of the Scotsman *James Watt*, who, though not actually the inventor of the *steam-engine*, so improved it as to place a new power in the hands of mankind. *Steam-boats* came into use about 1812. A few years earlier, gas began to be employed, Pall Mall being first lighted with it in 1807.

16. *Reforms.*—Among the notable men of this reign must be named some who spent their lives in endeavouring to remedy the evils and abuses around them. *John Howard* is famous for his labours in the reform of prisons. Being in 1773 High Sheriff of Bedfordshire, he was shocked by the condition in which he found the gaols, and he thereupon devoted himself to the task of examining into their state throughout the country, and of calling the attention of Parliament to them. Such inquiries were undertaken at no small hazard; for the prisons of the time, without order or

discipline, with their inmates left at the mercy of hard and extortionate gaolers, were dens so foul and infected that to enter them was risk of life. *Thomas Clarkson* and *William Wilberforce* are honoured as the leaders of the party which did away with the slave-trade. Although, as was decided in 1772 by the Court of King's Bench at Westminster, slavery could not legally exist in England, her colonies, like those of other nations, employed the labour of negro-slaves, who were imported in vast numbers from Africa. Clarkson was the first who effectually stirred up public feeling against this cruel traffic, which the society of Quakers had already denounced. He and his associates were seconded in Parliament by Wilberforce, the son of a Hull merchant, and, at last, after agitating the matter for nearly twenty years, they succeeded in 1807 in obtaining the passing of an Act abolishing the slave-trade. Fox, although he did not live to see the measure carried through Parliament, did much towards bringing it about. *Sir Samuel Romilly* is distinguished for his efforts to improve the penal laws, which at that time were—nominally at least, for they were seldom executed—the most severe in Europe. Romilly, by his exertions, obtained the doing away of the punishment of death in the case of many small offences.

17. Literature—End of Eighteenth Century.—*Dr. Samuel Johnson*, the author of the well-known English Dictionary, reigned in the early years of George III. as a kind of literary sovereign, although as an author he belongs equally to the preceding reign. It was in 1737 that he first came up to London with his pupil Garrick, afterwards famous as an actor, to seek his fortune by writing, which was then but an ill-paid trade. After many years of hardship, his fame became established. George III., soon after his accession, granted him a pension, and Johnson, revered by the new generation around him, who looked up to his judgment, and

admired his sonorous, balanced, and Latinized style, spent the rest of his life in comfort. His biography, written by his devoted worshipper *James Boswell*, who noted his every word and action, has done almost as much to perpetuate his fame as any of his own works in verse or prose. *Horace Walpole*, youngest son of Sir Robert, and author of the wild romance of the *Castle of Otranto*, showed his power chiefly in his letters, which extend over the period from 1735 to 1797, and by their liveliness and ease, their fund of gossip and anecdote, have won him the praise of "the best letter-writer in the English language." *Oliver Goldsmith*, an idle, good-natured, and improvident man, ever in difficulties, was the author of a novel, the *Vicar of Wakefield*, a poem, the *Deserted Village*, and a comedy, *She stoops to conquer*, which have all been equally popular. In 1769, during the struggle between the House of Commons and Wilkes, began to appear the famous *Letters of Junius*, a series of powerful and savage attacks, mainly directed against the then prime minister, the Duke of Grafton, and his friends. "Junius"—for so his letters were signed—concealed himself so well that it has never been known for certain who he was. *Adam Smith*, a Scotsman, published in 1766 his great work on political economy, entitled *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. *Edward Gibbon*, the historian of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, is distinguished by the wide range of his learning, by his coldly majestic style, and by his power of grave and quiet sarcasm, which, being himself an unbeliever in Christianity, he particularly delighted in directing against the early professors of the faith. The drama was enlivened by the brilliant comedies of the *Rivals* and the *School for Scandal*, which were written by *Richard Brinsley Sheridan*. In poetry there is for some time little to note except the verse of Goldsmith;

but in the later part of the century there arose a poet who had the vigour to discard the monotonous and mannered style which had been in vogue ever since the days of Pope. This was *William Cowper*, whose poems are marked by deep religious feeling, by a genuine love of nature, and by a sarcastic power hardly to be looked for in one who was morbidly sensitive, and at times afflicted with melancholy madness. He died in 1800.

18. *Early Nineteenth Century Literature.*—Cowper's works were the first symptoms of that awakening of the spirit of poetry which took place about the end of the eighteenth century. The times were such as make poets; for the great upheaving of the French Revolution, which brought forth as it were a new world, and the long struggle with Napoleon, inspired new ideas of liberty and fresh ardour of patriotism. The opinions of the Jacobins, as the extreme revolutionists in France were called, took strong hold of two young poets, *Robert Southey* and his great companion, *Samuel Taylor Coleridge*, who however both sobered down in after-life. Southey, whose fierce republicanism had once afforded subjects for the witty parodies of *Hookham Frere* and *George Canning* in the *Anti-Jacobin*, turned into a somewhat bigoted Tory. Both he and Coleridge belonged to what was called the *Lake School*, of which *William Wordsworth* was the head. The circumstance of these three fellow-poets at one time all living in the Lake country gave rise to the name, which was peculiarly applicable to Wordsworth from the minuteness and truth with which he described the scenery and people of his native North. As his theory and style of poetry altogether differed from those of any writer before him, and were not of a kind to be popular, Wordsworth had to encounter much derision before his position as a man of genius was established. *Thomas Campbell*, whose works breathe a spirit of patriotism

and a rational love of freedom, is chiefly remembered by his shorter poems, such as the spirited songs of *Ye Mariners of England*, written in expectation of war with Denmark, and the *Battle of the Baltic*, commemorating Nelson's attack on Copenhagen in 1801. *Sir Walter Scott* was long the most popular poet of his day, and when he lost that position, he became the most popular novelist. In 1805 he surprised the world by the wild warlike vigour of the *Lay of the Last Minstrel*. This was followed up by other metrical romances of Scottish and English chivalry. More perhaps was done by Scott than by anyone else to call forth that appreciation of the literature, art, feelings, and manners of the Teutonic and Celtic races which was gradually displacing the exclusive admiration of Greek and Roman antiquity. He took to prose when he saw that his poetical renown was waning before that of a younger rival. This was *George Gordon, Lord Byron*, whose first cantos of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*, published in 1812, had such immediate success that, as he himself said, he woke one morning and found himself famous. Byron led a wild and unhappy life, and, splendid as his poems are, they are marred by moral faults which increased with his years. In 1824, when only thirty-six years of age, he died at Mesolongi, whither he had gone to fight for the Greek patriots against the Turks. His friend *Percy Bysshe Shelley*, whose peculiar religious and social opinions had made him so unpopular that he left England, had been drowned in the Mediterranean two years earlier. Shelley has been called "the Poet of Poets," because his writings, though not suited to ordinary minds, can be appreciated by those who are themselves poets. In prose the most notable works of the time were Scott's *Waverley Novels*, by which he won a still higher place than that to which he had attained as a poet. *Waverley*, the first of the set, was published anonymously in

1814, and was quickly followed by a host of other novels and romances. Those in which he drew the characters of his countrymen, of Scottish Jacobites and Scottish Puritans, are considered to be his best. Another novelist, in a very different line, was *Jane Austen*, who represented the ordinary uneventful life of the English middle classes with exquisite truth and humour.

19. Painting.—Nothing has hitherto been said about painting, because England was behindhand in the art, and it was not until the time of the Georges that a native school was formed. The most famous names in the early history of painting in England are those of foreigners. *Hans Holbein*, whose flattering portrait of Anne of Cleves had a share in leading Henry VIII. to send for her as his bride, was a German. *Sir Anthony Vandyck*, the great artist who has preserved for us the features of Charles I. and his nobles, was a native of Antwerp. The *Vandeveldes*, father and son, both noted sea-painters, belonged to Holland, from which country the elder one was invited by Charles II. *Sir Peter Lely* and *Sir Godfrey Kneller*, the first of whom portrayed the beauties of the court of Charles II., the other, those of the court of William III., were Germans. There were indeed some good native painters, such as *William Dobson*, who has been called the English Vandyck; *Robert Walker*, who painted Cromwell and most of his officers; and *Samuel Cooper*, a fine miniature painter of the days of the Commonwealth and Charles II. But after these, portraiture, and indeed all branches of painting, went down, until an eminent artist arose in *William Hogarth*, who flourished under George II. He was the son-in-law of *Sir James Thornhill*, a painter much in request during the reigns of Anne and George I. for the decoration of palaces and public buildings, whose best works adorn the dome of St. Paul's and the hall of Greenwich Hospital.

Hogarth struck out a style of his own, painting satirical scenes, sometimes humorous, sometimes gloomy and tragic; and his pictures, drawn from the life of all classes, are records of the costume and the manners of his age. In 1768, four years after Hogarth's death, was founded the *Royal Academy*, of which *Sir Joshua Reynolds*, the great portrait-painter of England, was the first president. Reynolds is accounted the founder of the English school of painting. Other noted artists of the time are *Richard Wilson*, a painter of landscape, and *Thomas Gainsborough*, of landscape and portraits. Among the many pictures of *Benjamin West*, who was born in Pennsylvania, then a British colony, and who became the favourite artist of George III., one of the most celebrated is the *Death of General Wolfe*, in which, instead of representing the figures in ancient Greek or Roman costume, as was then the fashion with painters, he had the good sense to depict them in dresses such as they actually wore. The successor, though not the equal, of Reynolds in portraiture was *Sir Thomas Lawrence*, who, from the early part of the nineteenth century until his death in 1830, possessed the public favour. *Sir David Wilkie*, a Scotsman, drew admirable scenes of village and farmhouse life; and the great landscape painter *Joseph Mallord William Turner* was in the middle of his career at the end of the reign of George III. *Thomas Bewick*, a Northumbrian, is famous for his beautiful woodcuts of beasts, birds, and rural scenes.

CHAPTER XLII.

GEORGE IV.

George IV. ; Cato Street Conspiracy (1)—Queen Caroline (2)—foreign affairs ; battle of Navarino (3)—“Catholic Emancipation” (4)—death of George IV. ; Metropolitan Police force ; Burmese War (5).

1. **George IV., 1820-1830.**—Within a month of the accession of the Prince Regent as *George IV.*, discovery was made of a plot, which is known as “*the Cato Street*” or “*Thistlewood Conspiracy*,” for assassinating the King’s ministers at a Cabinet dinner. On this charge the ringleader, Thistlewood, was hanged, together with four accomplices.

2. **Queen Caroline.**—In 1795, when still Prince of Wales, George, yielding to his father’s demand, and tempted by the prospect of payment of his debts, had married his cousin, *Caroline Princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel*, an indiscreet and coarse-mannered woman, from whom he soon separated. Not long after his accession, a bill of pains and penalties was brought in by the ministry to degrade and divorce her on charges of misconduct. After an examination of witnesses before the House of Lords, the bill was finally abandoned, to the delight of the populace, who were all on the Queen’s side. But the King was determined to resist her claim to be crowned as his consort, and in this he was supported by the Privy Council. The Queen, being resolved to be present at the coronation, appeared early on the morning of the ceremony before the doors of Westminster Abbey, but was everywhere refused admission. Not long after this humiliation she was taken ill, and died August 7, 1821.

3. **Foreign Affairs.**—The foreign policy of Great Britain during this period, particularly when guided by George Canning, diverged from that of her allies, Austria, Russia,

and Prussia. These, having joined together in the "*Holy Alliance*," as they called it, made themselves the opponents of revolution, and of reform won by revolution, throughout Europe; while England refused to assent to the principle of interference in the internal affairs of other states. The last official act of Canning as prime minister was to settle a treaty between Great Britain, France, and Russia, with the view of putting a stop to the cruel warfare carried on by the Turks in Greece, which had risen against their yoke. The hope that the object of the treaty would be attained without fighting was not realized, for the allied fleet and that of the Turks and Egyptians came unexpectedly to a battle in the port of *Navarino* (October 20, 1827), when the Turkish fleet was in great part destroyed.

4. *Catholic Emancipation.*—The chief measure of this reign was the *Catholic Emancipation Act*. Till the reign of George III. Roman Catholics remained subject to penal laws of such severity that the great lawyer Blackstone could find no better defence for them than that they were seldom put in force. By later statutes many of these restrictions and penalties were removed from those Roman Catholics who would take a certain prescribed oath, and at last all grades in the army and navy were virtually opened to them. From both Houses of Parliament, and from certain offices, franchises, and civil rights, they were still shut out by the oath of supremacy, and by the declarations required of members of Parliament and holders of such offices against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. On the Union with Ireland, Pitt thought himself bound to remove these disabilities; but King George III. made it a point of conscience to refuse to entertain such a measure. Canning was in favour of the emancipation, but after his death in 1827 the hopes of the Roman Catholics were cast down by the accession to office of a

ministry opposed to their claims. About the same time, the "*Catholic Association*" in Ireland showed its power by the election of the popular Roman Catholic politician *Daniel O'Connell* to a seat in Parliament. The ministry now felt it necessary to bring in a bill for admitting Roman Catholics to Parliament, to all civil and military offices and places of trust or profit under the Crown (except those of Regent, Lord Chancellor in England and Ireland, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and a few others), and to corporate offices, upon their taking an oath to support the existing institutions of the State, and not to injure those of the Church. The Duke of Wellington, who was at that time prime minister, avowed in the House of Lords that he had brought forward this measure in order to avert civil war. The bill received the royal assent on the 13th April, 1829. In the previous year a concession had been made to the Protestant Dissenters by repealing so much of the Corporation and Test Acts as required persons taking office to communicate according to the rites of the Church of England.

5. **Death of George IV.**—The King, who passed the latter years of his life in seclusion, died at Windsor Castle, June 26, 1830. During his reign the laws relating to the trial and punishment of offences were consolidated and amended, the penalties being made less severe, but more certain; and the Metropolitan Police force, which greatly increased the security of London, was established in 1829 by *Mr.* (afterwards *Sir Robert*) *Peel*, who was at that time Secretary of State. For about two years, from 1824 to 1826, the English in India were at war with their neighbours the *Burmese*, each side having gradually extended their possessions till they met those of the other. The war ended successfully for the British, who gained some territory thereby. George IV. was succeeded by his brother *William Henry, Duke of Clarence*.

CHAPTER XLIII.

WILLIAM IV.

William IV. ; the Reform Bill ; new party names (1)—Abolition of Slavery (2)—death of King William ; Hanover separated from Great Britain ; reforms ; East India Company (3)—burning of the Houses of Parliament (4)—railways ; Stephenson (5).

1. William IV., 1830-1837. The Reform Bill.—*William Duke of Clarence*, who had passed his early life in the navy, came to the throne in troublous times. Soon after his accession, rick-burning and machine-breaking spread alarm through the Southern agricultural counties ; and the great question of *Parliamentary Reform* was pressing for immediate consideration. The system of *parliamentary representation* had long stood in need of reform. New towns had sprung up, but they were unrepresented ; ancient but decayed boroughs, containing perhaps seven, six, or even one elector, still returned members. The property in such boroughs was, in the majority of instances, in the hands of some one large owner, by whom the elections were controlled, and whose influence and nomination were notoriously bought and sold ; electoral rights were various, and in most towns a small corporation, open to control and corruption, exclusively possessed them. The necessity of improving upon this state of things had been seen by many politicians, among them the two Pitts, the younger of whom had three times brought forward plans of reform. But it was not until 1816 that, mainly owing to the cheap publications of *William Cobbett*, Reform became a popular cry, and clubs sprang up in which

universal suffrage and annual parliaments were advocated. These, and more violent projects, tending at times to riot and insurrection, had led to the adoption of stringent provisions for repressing sedition. Nevertheless, during the Regency and the reign of George IV., the question of Reform had been raised at intervals in Parliament, and the public desire for it continued to increase. This feeling had been strongly displayed at the elections for the new Parliament; and great was the indignation at finding from the King's speech, and the language held by the Duke of Wellington, that no Reform was to be looked for from the Government. Such was the ferment that the King was advised against going in state to dine at the Guildhall, as usual at the beginning of a reign, and Wellington and Peel resigned office a few days afterwards, when they were succeeded by a ministry under the leadership of *Earl Grey*. On the 1st March, 1831, *Lord John Russell*, on the part of the new Government, brought in a Reform Bill, which was so much more sweeping than had been expected that it was received by the Opposition with mingled amazement and scorn. The ministry, being defeated, prevailed on the King to dissolve the Parliament. A new House of Commons, elected to the cry of "*The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill,*" sent the desired measure up to the Lords, by whom it was rejected. Incendiary fires, and riots at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol, marked the autumn of 1831, whilst public excitement became general and intense. A third Reform Bill was brought in by the ministry, and passed by the Commons; and on finding both the Crown and the people against them, the Peers were at last induced to give up their opposition to the measure, which became law, June 7, 1832. Reform Bills were also passed for Scotland and Ireland. By the Act of 1832, fifty-six boroughs were disfranchised, and forty-three new ones, together with thirty county constituencies,

were created; a 10*l.* householder qualification being established in boroughs, and the county franchise extended to copyholders, leaseholders, and tenant occupiers of premises of certain values. The Reformed Parliament, the object of great hopes and greater fears, met January 29, 1833. Setting vigorously to work, it passed several important Acts; without however realizing the forebodings of the anti-Reform party, who had thought a revolution was at hand. It was about the beginning of this reign that the Tories took the name of *Conservatives*, as denoting that they sought to preserve the ancient institutions of the country. Their political opponents were already known by the name of *Liberals*. That of *Radical* had come up about 1818, being then applied to those who desired a *radical reform* of Parliament.

2. Abolition of Slavery.—Although the slave-trade had been put down wherever English power reached, slavery still existed in the Colonies. In August, 1833, was passed a measure of which Englishmen are justly proud—the *Act for the Abolition of Slavery*, at the cost of twenty millions sterling in compensation to the slave-owners.

3. Death of King William.—The King died at Windsor Castle, June 20, 1837. By his wife *Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen*, he had two daughters, who both died in infancy. He was succeeded on the throne of *Great Britain and Ireland* by her present Majesty, *Alexandrina Victoria*, the only child of his brother Edward Duke of Kent. The succession to the throne of Hanover (which in 1815 had been constituted a kingdom) being limited to the male line, that country passed to Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George III., and thus became separated from Great Britain. Among the important Acts of this reign are those for the reform of the poor-laws and of municipal corporations. Alterations were also made in the constitution of the East India Company. The government of the British territories in India

remained in its hands, but it ceased altogether to be a commercial body.

4. **The Houses of Parliament.**—On the 16th October, 1834, the Houses of Parliament were accidentally burned down. Westminster Hall was happily saved from destruction. In the next reign the Parliament houses were replaced by the present building, the work of Sir Charles Barry.

5. **Railways. George Stephenson.**—The autumn of 1830 is memorable for the opening of the *Liverpool and Manchester Railway*, on which passenger carriages were drawn by a locomotive steam-engine at the speed of a race-horse. Neither the road nor the engine were wholly new things; for wooden tramways had been used in collieries as early as the 17th century, while many of the improvers of the steam-engine had thought of turning it to locomotive purposes, and some had succeeded in so doing. But no one had made locomotives at once economical and efficient before *George Stephenson*, who by degrees greatly improved both engines and roads. Stephenson was a self-taught Northumbrian, who from an engine-fireman had risen to be engineer of a colliery near Killingworth, and who amongst his other inventions had devised a safety-lamp for the use of miners, upon the same principle as that constructed about the same time by the great chemist *Sir Humphry Davy*. Still, with all that Stephenson had yet done, the advantages of locomotives were doubted, so that many would have preferred to use horses on the new Liverpool and Manchester line. But steam-power carried the day, and Stephenson and his son Robert constructed the famous engine "*Rocket*." From that time dates the use of railways and railway engines, whose promoters had once been jeered at for thinking that a speed of twenty miles an hour might possibly be attained with safety, and that stage-coaches and post-chaises might be superseded.

CHAPTER XLIV.

VICTORIA.

Queen Victoria; the Prince Consort (1)—*abandonment of the protective duties on corn* (2)—*the Chartist* (3)—*wars in China, India, and elsewhere; the Crimean War* (4)—*the Indian Mutiny; Chinese wars; the Abyssinian expedition* (5)—*Canada* (6)—*legislation; penny postage; newspapers; parliamentary reform; legislation for Ireland* (7)—*Arctic voyages; the Franklin expedition; inventions* (8)—*literature* (9).

1. **Victoria, 1837.**—Although called to the throne in a time of political restlessness and discontent, *Queen Victoria*, then only eighteen years of age, was received by her subjects with warm loyalty. On the 10th February, 1840, her Majesty married her cousin, *Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha*. The Prince, whose public and private conduct gained him the respect of the whole nation, died December 14th, 1861.

2. **The Repeal of the Corn Laws.**—The chief question of the time was the repeal of the *Corn Laws*, or laws laying heavy duties on the importation of foreign corn. Many upheld these restrictions, on the ground that home agriculture ought to be encouraged, or *protected*, by keeping up the price of corn, and that a country ought, as far as might be, to depend upon itself for its supply of food. On the other side, those who held *Free-trade* doctrines argued that the effect of the Corn Laws, so far as they were operative, was to set, for the benefit of the landowners, an artificial limit to the wealth and population of the kingdom in general. A number of zealous free-traders, in 1839, formed an association, the *Anti-Corn-Law League*, which employed itself in enlightening, by speech and writing, the public mind as to the ill effect

of *protective* laws. The League gradually made way ; but it was not till 1846, when the failure of the potato-crop was threatening a fearful famine in Ireland, that its cause triumphed, the leader of the Conservatives, Sir Robert Peel, then prime minister, bringing in and carrying, to the dismay of many of his party, bills for abolishing, or reducing to a merely nominal amount, the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and other productions. This repeal of the corn duties, though carried in 1846, did not come into complete operation till 1849. The honour of the measure was attributed by Peel to *Richard Cobden*, the foremost of the free-trade politicians, whose doctrines—that every man and every nation should be free to buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market, without the laws interfering to favour some particular class of producers—are now recognised and acted upon in Great Britain.

3. **The Chartists.**—Side by side with the Corn-law struggle went the *Chartist* agitation. The Chartists were for the most part working men, who suffered from the distress then generally prevailing, and who looked to further reforms in the system of parliamentary representation for the means of mending their condition. Their name came from their "*People's Charter*," the document in which they set forth their demands—universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, the division of the country into equal electoral districts, the abolition of the property qualification of members, and payment for their services. After some rioting in 1839, the Chartists remained tolerably quiet until 1848, when, excited by the revolutions which took place that year in France and other parts of the Continent, they determined to make show of their strength. Mustering on the 10th April, on Kennington Common, they designed to march through London to the House of Commons, carrying a petition embodying their demands, which they

boasted, though not with truth, to bear more than five million signatures. This was to be presented by *Feargus O'Connor*, one of the members for Nottingham. Both the Government and the great body of the people met this threatening movement with firmness. The Londoners, to the number of a quarter of a million, enrolled themselves as special constables; the Chartists were not allowed to recross the bridges in procession, and the whole affair passed off quietly, without the troops which the Duke of Wellington had posted out of sight, but at hand, having any need to show themselves. From this time the Chartists ceased to be of any importance as an organized body; but three of the reforms for which they contended have since been carried out by the Acts which abolished the property qualifications, and granted well-nigh universal suffrage, and vote by ballot.

4. Wars in China, India, and elsewhere. The Crimean War.—The wars of this reign hitherto have been waged in distant parts of the world. In 1840, England, together with other powers, took the part of the Sultan against Mohammed Ali, Pasha of Egypt, and Acre was bombarded and taken by the fleet under Admiral Stopford and Commodore Napier. In this action war-steamers were employed for the first time. In the same year a war with *China* arose out of the attempts of the Chinese Imperial Government to put down the contraband trade in opium carried on between India and that country. One of the results was the cession of the island of *Hong-Kong* to Great Britain. A war which began in 1838 in *Afghanistan* is memorable for the disasters which befell the British troops in occupation of that country. Forced by a rising of the natives to retreat from *Cabul*, in 1842, they were cut off almost to a man in the mountain passes. After these misfortunes had been retrieved, a war with the *Ameers of Sind* broke out in 1843, of which the result

was the conquest of that country by *Sir Charles Napier*, a soldier trained in the Peninsular War, who further distinguished himself by the success with which as Governor he ruled the territory he had won. At the end of 1845, and again in 1848, there were wars with the *Sikhs* of the *Punjaub*, ended by the victory of *Goojerat*, won by *Lord Gough*, February 21st, 1849, and the annexation of the *Punjaub* to the British dominions. To these was added, in 1852, the province of *Pegu*, taken from the Burman Empire. In 1854, Great Britain and France, afterwards joined by the King of Sardinia (now of Italy), engaged, on behalf of the Turks, in a war with Russia, which was mainly carried on in the *Crimea*. The chief actions were the victories of the *Alma*, September 20th, and of *Inkerman*, November 5th. During the winter the British army investing *Sebastopol*, ill supplied with food or shelter, in the bitterest weather, underwent grievous suffering and loss. The siege lasted 349 days, at the end of which time the place was evacuated by the Russians in September 1855; and in the course of the next year peace was made.

5. *The Indian Mutiny. Chinese Wars. The Abyssinian Expedition.*—Early in 1857 the mutiny of the *Sepoys*, or native soldiers of the East India Company's army, excited by a mistaken idea that some interference with their religion was intended, came like a thunder-clap upon the English. The regiments at Meerut, having risen in mutiny, and killed a number of English men and women, marched into Delhi, where, amid like slaughters, they proclaimed its nominal King as Emperor of Hindustan. At *Cawnpore* the European garrison were treacherously slain, after having surrendered on terms to the rebel *Nana Sahib*, who, upon the approach of *General Henry Havelock's* troops, proceeded to murder all the English women and children in his hands. After occupying Cawnpore, Havelock, who had

inflicted many defeats upon the mutineers, succeeded, in company with *Sir James Outram*, in relieving the beleaguered garrison of *Lucknow*. There the two generals remained until *Sir Colin Campbell*, afterwards *Lord Clyde*, came to their aid, and, forcing his way in, brought off the garrison, together with the sick, the women, and children. The mutiny, which had at first threatened the overthrow of the British dominion, was put down in the course of the next year, when, by Act of Parliament, August 2nd, 1858, the government of India was transferred from the Company to the Crown. Among military matters there only remain to note fresh quarrels with China in 1856, and again in 1860, when the allied English and French entered Peking; the formation of the *Volunteer* force in 1859, under the fear of a French invasion; and the successful *Abyssinian Expedition*, sent out in 1867, under the command of *Sir Robert Napier* (now *Lord Napier of Magdala*), to rescue certain British subjects and other Europeans held captive by *Theodore King of Abyssinia*.

6. *Canada*.—The beginning of the reign found *Lower Canada* in a state of discontent, which soon broke out into revolt. Peace however was before long restored, and a better system of policy was established. At a later period, in 1867, the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were by statute federally united into one Dominion under the name of *Canada*, with a constitution similar in principle to that of Great Britain and Ireland, being ruled by a Governor-General in the name of the Queen, and two Houses of Parliament.

7. *Legislation*.—In 1840 the scheme proposed by *Mr.*, afterwards *Sir Rowland Hill*, for the carriage of letters throughout the United Kingdom at uniform rates, now well known as the "*penny postage*," was put into practice. The immediate consequence was that the number of letters sent

through the post was more than doubled, the former high rates of postage having acted as a check on letter-writing. In 1858 an Act was passed empowering either House of Parliament to modify, in the case of *Jews*, the oath then required to be taken by members. The House of Commons immediately availed itself of the Act, and thereby enabled a Jew, who had already been elected, to take his seat. In accordance with a prevalent desire for further parliamentary reforms, a new Reform Bill was in 1867 brought in and carried by the Conservative ministry then in power, of which the chiefs were the *Earl of Derby* and *Mr. Disraeli*. By this, which became law August 15th, 1867, a vote was given, in boroughs, to all ratepayers and to persons occupying lodgings of the yearly value of 10*l.*, and the county franchise was greatly extended. By an Act passed in 1872, votes in parliamentary elections are to be given by *ballot*, instead of open voting, as heretofore. In 1869 and 1870 great changes were made in *Ireland* by measures carried by the Liberal ministry under the leadership of *Mr. Gladstone*. By one Act the *Irish Church* was disestablished; and by another, out-going tenants became entitled to compensation in respect of improvements made by them on their holdings.

8. **Discoveries and Inventions.**—From 1818 fresh efforts had been made to find a north-west passage, and *Sir Edward Parry* and *Sir John Franklin* explored far into the Arctic regions. Franklin's last expedition was made in 1845, and from this neither he nor his companions ever returned. After several expeditions under various leaders in search of him, in the course of which at least three north-west passages have been discovered, *Captain* (now *Sir Leopold*) *M'Clintock*, who went out in 1857, found at Point Victory a paper which had been left there in 1848 by the then survivors of the Franklin party, recording the death of Sir John in

1847, and the subsequent abandonment of their ice-beset vessels. The various branches of science have been cultivated with ardour and success during the present period. Early in the reign *photography* and *electric telegraphs* were brought into use ; the latter have since been greatly developed, and more than one submarine cable has been laid down from Ireland to America.

9. *Literature*.—Among authors (living writers not being taken into account), *Thackeray*, *Dickens*, and *Lord Lytton* are to be noted as novelists. *Thomas Arnold* and *George Grote* are distinguished for their histories of *Rome* and *Greece* ; *Henry Hart Milman*, *Dean of St. Paul's*, for the *History of Latin Christianity*. *Henry Hallam*, author of the *Constitutional History of England*, is characterized by his judicial impartiality ; *Lord Macaulay*, who tells, from the point of view of a Liberal politician, the story of the Revolution of 1688, combines the brilliancy of romance with many of the best qualities of an historian ; while the labour and research of *Kemble*, *Palgrave*, and *Lingard* have all likewise tended to give us more accurate and vivid ideas of the earlier History of England.

INDEX.

A.

Abolition of Slavery, Act for the, 234.
 Abyssinian expedition, 240.
 Acre, defence of, 215; bombardment of, 238.
 Ælfgifu, or Elgiva, 18.
 Ælfheah, or St. Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury, 20.
 Ælfthryth, or Elfrida, 19.
 Æthelbald, King, 12.
 Æthelbert, King of Kent, conversion of, 9; laws of, 14.
 Æthelbert, King, 12.
 Æthelred I., King, 12.
 Æthelred II., King, 19, 20.
 Æthelstan, King, 16.
 Æthelwulf, King, 12.
 Aghrim, battle of, 186.
 Agricola, Cnæus Julius, 3.
 Aidan, St., Bishop of Lindisfarne, 10.
 Aix-la-Chapelle, Peace of, 201, 202.
 Alban, St., 4.
 Albert, Prince Consort, 236.
 Alexandria, battle of, 215.
 Alfred, or Ælfred, King, 12; reign, 13; death, 15.
 Alfred, son of Æthelred, 22, 23.
 Algiers, bombardment of, 219.
 American War of Independence, 212.
 Amiens, Peace of, 216.
 Angles, 1, 5, 9.
 Anglo-Saxons, 5.
 Anne, Queen (Princess of Denmark), 177, 179, 189; reign, 191; death, 195.
 Anne of Bohemia, Queen (wife of Richard II.), 83.
 Anne Boleyn, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 116—118.
 Anne of Cleves, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 118, 227.
 Anne Neville, Queen (wife of Richard III.), 102, 107, 106, 108.

Anselm, St., Archbishop of Canterbury, 41, 43, 44.
 Anson, Commodore, voyage of, 200.
 Antoninus Pius, Emperor, 4.
 Architecture, 31, 65, 183.
 Arkwright, Richard, 222.
 Armada, the Spanish, 137.
 Arthur, British prince, 6, 86, 113.
 Arthur of Brittany, 56.
 Arthur, Prince of Wales, marriage and death of, 113.
 Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, 84, 85, 91.
 Assye, battle of, 217.
 Athenree, battle of, 73.
 Atterbury, Francis, Bishop of Rochester, 198.
 Augustine, St., Archbishop of Canterbury, 9.
 Australia, 221.
 Austria, Leopold, Duke of, 54.
 Austrian Succession, War of the, 200.
 Azincourt, battle of, 93.

B.

Babington, Anthony, 135.
 Bacon, Francis, 143, 147.
 Baffin's Bay discovered by Bylot and Baffin, 145.
 Balliol, John, King of Scots, 68.
 Bank of England, founded, 187; stops cash payments, 214.
 Bannockburn, battle of, 73.
 Barnet, battle of, 103.
 Baronet, title of, 144.
 Barons, 32, 33.
 Barons' Wars, with John, 58, 59; with Henry III., 62, 64.
 Beachy Head, battle of, 185.
 Becket, Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury, 49—51, 87, 119.

Bedford, John, Duke of, 91, 96, 97.
 Benevolences, 103, 107, 112, 143.
 Berlin Decree, 217, 219.
 Bertha (wife of King Æthelbert of Kent), 9.
 Bible, 81, 120, 141, 145.
 Black Prince, the, 78. See Edward Prince of Wales.
 Blake, Robert, Admiral, 160, 161, 163.
 Blenheim, battle of, 192.
 Boadicea, or Buddug, revolt of, 3.
 Bolingbroke, Henry of, see Henry IV.
 Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, Viscount, 194—196.
 Bombay 169.
 Bonner, Edmund, Bishop of London, 125, 130, 132.
 Bosworth, battle of, 108.
 Boyne, battle of the, 186.
 Bradshaw, John, 156, 158, 167.
 Bretigny, Peace of, 78.
 Bridgewater, Francis Egerton, Duke of, 222.
 Brindley, James, 222.
 Britons, the, 1—5.
 Bruce, Edward, in Ireland, 73.
 Bruce, Robert, a claimant of the Scottish crown, 68.
 Bruce, Robert, Earl of Carrick (Robert I. of Scotland), 69, 73.
 Brunanburh, battle of, 16; song of, 30.
 Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of, 142, 143, 150.
 Buckingham, Henry Stafford, Duke of, 104—107.
 Buonaparte, Napoleon, 215—218.
 Burghley, William Cecil, Baron, 132.
 Byng, Admiral, shot, 202.

C.

Cabal, the, 171.
 Cabul, retreat from, 238.
 Cade, Jack, 98.
 Cæsar, Caius Julius, 2.
 Calais, 77, 78, 131.
 Calcutta, Black Hole of, 204.
 Caledonia, 1.
 Campbell, Sir Colin (Lord Clyde), 240.
 Camperdown, battle of, 215.
 Canada, 203, 211, 213, 219, 240.
 Canning, George, 225, 229, 230.
 Cape St. Vincent, battle of, 214.
 Caractacus, or Caradoc, 2.
 Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach, Queen (wife of George II.), 199, 200.

Caroline of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, Queen (wife of George IV.), 229.
 Catesby, Robert, 141.
 Catholic Emancipation Act, 230.
 Cecil, Robert, Earl of Salisbury, 132, 139, 142.
 Cerdic and Cynric, 6.
 Charles I. King, his journey to Spain while Prince of Wales, 143; reign, 149; beheaded, 157.
 Charles II., King, 107, 157; defeated at Worcester, 159; escape, 160; declaration from Breda, 165; restoration, 166; reign, 167; death, 173.
 Charles V., Emperor, 116, 121, 128.
 Charles IV., King of France, 74, 76.
 Charles V., King of France, 79.
 Charles VI., King of France, 93, 96.
 Charles VII., King of France, 94, 96, 97.
 Charles, King of Spain, death of, 188.
 Charles XII., King of Sweden, 197.
 Charles Edward Stuart (the Young Pretender), 198, 201, 202.
 Charters, 34, 45; Charter of Liberties granted by Henry I., 43; Charter, the Great, 58, 65, 172; Charter of the Forest, 65; Confirmation of the Charters, 70.
 Chartist, the, 237.
 Chatham, William Pitt, Earl of, 200, 203, 211, 212.
 Clarence, George, Duke of, 102, 104.
 Clarence, Lionel, Duke of, 80, 88.
 Clarence, Thomas, Duke of, 91, 94.
 Clarendon, Constitutions of, 50.
 Clarendon, Edward Hyde, Earl of, 171, 181.
 Claudius, Emperor, 2.
 Clive, Robert, Lord, 203.
 Cnut or Canute, King, 20—22, 27.
 Cobbett, William, 232.
 Cobden, Richard, 237.
 Cobham, Sir John Oldcastle, Lord, 92.
 Commission, the High, 133, 151, 152; the Ecclesiastical, 176, 178.
 Commons, House of, first formed, 64.
 Cook, Captain, 221.
 Copenhagen, battle of, 215, 226; bombarded, 217.
 Corn Laws, 236.
 Cornwallis, Earl, 212, 221.
 Corporation Act, 168, 231.
 Council of the North, 150, 152.
 Cranmer, Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury, 116, 120, 126, 130.
 Crécy, battle of, 76.
 Crimean War, 239.

Cromwell, Oliver, 154, 156; in Ireland, 159; wins the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, 16; turns out the Long Parliament, 161; becomes Lord Protector, 162; his death, 163; character, 164; insult to his corpse, 167.

Cromwell, Richard, 164.

Cromwell, Thomas, Earl of Essex, 118—120.

Culloden, battle of, 201.

Cumberland, Ernest Augustus, Duke of (King of Hanover), 234.

Cumberland, William, Duke of, 201.

Cuthbert, St., Bishop of Lindisfarne, 10.

D.

Danby, Earl of, 178, 179.

Danegeld, 20.

Danes, the, 11, 27.

David I., King of Scots, 47.

David II., King of Scots (David Bruce), 77.

David of Wales, 67.

Davis, John, 136.

Davy, Sir Humphry, 235.

Dermot, King of Leinster, 52.

Despensers, Sir Hugh le, 73, 74.

Dettingen, battle of, 200.

Devonshire, Earl of, 178, 179.

Dissenters, 176, 184, 231. See also Nonconformists.

Domesday, 37.

Dover, Treaty of, 171.

Drake, Francis, 136—138.

Druids, 2, 3.

Dudley, Edmund, 114, 115.

Dunbar, battle of, 159.

Dunstan, St., Archbishop of Canterbury, 17—19.

E.

East India Company, 139, 169, 203, 234, 240.

Eddystone Lighthouse, 205.

Edgar, or Eadgar, King, 18.

Edgar, the Ætheling, 26, 37, 43.

Edgehill, battle of, 153.

Edmund, or Eadmund, St., King of the East-Angles, 12, 20.

Edmund the Magnificent, King, 16.

Edmund Ironside, King, 20.

Edmund, son of Henry III., 62.

Eðred, or Eadred, King, 17.

Edward, or Eadward, the Elder, King, 15.

Edward the Martyr, King, 19.

Edward the Confessor, King, 23, 24, 28; his laws, 43.

Edward I., King, 62—65; reign, 66; death, 69; Confirmation of the Charters obtained from, 70; expels the Jews, 71; story of his massacre of the bards, 68, 209.

Edward II., King, 67, 69; reign, 71; deposition, 74; murder, 75.

Edward III., King, 74; reign, 75; death, 80.

Edward IV. King (Duke of York), 100; reign, 101; death, 104.

Edward V., King, reign, 104; disappearance of, 106; supposed remains of, discovered, 107.

Edward VI., King, 118, 121; reign, 122; death, 125; schools and hospitals, 126.

Edward, Prince of Wales (the Black Prince), 77—80.

Edward, Prince of Wales (son of Henry VI.), 100—103, 110.

Edwin, or Eadwine, King of the Northumbrians, 9.

Edwy, or Eadwig, King, 17.

Egbert, or Ecgbert, King, 11.

Eleanor of Aquitaine, Queen (wife of Henry II.), 49, 51.

Eleanor of Castile, Queen (wife of Edward I.), 67, 70.

Eleanor of Provence, Queen (wife of Henry III.), 61, 63.

Eliot, Sir John, 150.

Elizabeth, Queen (daughter of Henry VIII.), 118, 121, 127—129; reign, 131; death, 139; literary acquirements, 147.

Elizabeth Wydeville, Queen (wife of Edward IV.), 102, 105.

Elizabeth of York, Queen (wife of Henry VII.), 108, 111.

Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia (daughter of James I.), 143, 190.

Elizabeth (daughter of Charles I.), 157, 158.

Empson, Richard, 114, 115.

England, name of, 1, 5.

English, the, origin of, 5; religion, 6; government, 7; converted to Christianity, 8; manners and customs of, 26.

English language, 85.

Essex, Robert Devereux, 2nd Earl of, 138.

Essex, Robert Devereux, 3rd Earl of, 153, 154.

Evesham, battle of, 64.

F.

- Fairfax, Sir Thomas, 154, 156.
 Falkland, Lucius Carey, Viscount, 154.
 Faukes, Guido or Guy, 142.
 Feudal or military tenures, 32; abolished, 33, 167.
 Fitz-Gerald, Maurice, 52.
 Fitz-Osborn, William, 36.
 Fitz-Stephen, Robert, 52.
 Flamsteed, John, 182.
 Flodden, battle of, 115.
 Folkland, or public land, 7, 33.
 Fontenoy, battle of, 200.
 Forests, 38, 46.
 Fox, Charles James, 213, 223.
 Fox, George, 164.
 Francis I., King of France, 115.
 Franklin, Sir John, 241.
 Frederick, Prince of Wales, 199, 204.
 Frobisher, Martin, 136, 137.
 Fyrd, 7.

G.

- Gardiner, Stephen, Bishop of Winchester, 120, 125, 128.
 Gaunt, John of, see Lancaster, Duke of.
 Gaveston, Piers, 71-73.
 Geoffrey, son of Henry II., 51.
 George I., King (Electors of Brunswick-Lüneburg), 194; reign, 195; death, 198.
 George II., King, 198; reign, 199; death, 204.
 George III., King, 204; reign, 210; death, 219; displeased at his brothers' marriages, 220; opposed to the Roman Catholic claims, 230.
 George IV., King (Prince Regent), 213, 219; reign, 229; death, 231.
 George, Prince of Denmark, 177, 191.
 Gibraltar, 192, 194, 212.
 Gilds, 34.
 Ginkell, General (Earl of Athlone), 186.
 Glendower, Owen, 89, 90.
 Gloucester, Gilbert of Clare, Earl of, 64.
 Gloucester, Henry, Duke of, 157, 158.
 Gloucester, Humphrey, Duke of, 91, 97, 98.
 Gloucester, Richard, Duke of, see Richard III.
 Gloucester, Robert of Caen, Earl of, 47-49, 86.
 Gloucester, Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of, 80, 83, 84.

- Godwin, Earl of the West Saxons, 23.
 Great Britain, King of, 144; United Kingdom of, 193.
 Gregory the Great, Pope, 8.
 Grey, Lady Jane, 125, 127, 128, 146.
 Gunpowder Plot, 141.
 Guthrum, Danish King of East-Anglia, 13, 14.

H.

- Habeas Corpus Act, 172, 175.
 Hadrian, Emperor, 4.
 Hamilton, Duke of, 156, 158.
 Hampden, John, 151-153.
 Harold I., King, 22.
 Harold II., King, 24-26.
 Harold Hardrada, King of the Norwegians, 25.
 Harthacnut, King, 22.
 Harvey, William, 182.
 Hastings, battle of, 25, 27.
 Hastings, Lord, beheaded, 105.
 Hastings, Marquess of, 221.
 Hastings, Warren, 220.
 Havelock, General Henry, 239.
 Hawkins, John, 136, 137.
 Hengest and Horsa, legend of, 5.
 Henrietta Maria, Queen (wife of Charles I.), 149, 153.
 Henry I., King (son of William I.), grants of charters, 34, 43, 45; attacked by his brothers, 40; reign, 42; death, 45; confusion after his death, 46.
 Henry II., King, 33, 48; reign, 49; death, 52.
 Henry III., King, 60; reign, 61; death, 65; begins to rebuild Westminster, 24, 65.
 Henry IV., King (Duke of Hereford and Duke of Lancaster), banishment and return of, 84; made King, 85; reign, 88; death, 91.
 Henry V., King, story of his imprisonment for contempt, when Prince of Wales, 90; present at the burning of Badby, 91; reign, 92; death, 94; tomb, 95.
 Henry VI., King, 95; reign, 96; deposition, 100; flight and capture, 101; restoration, 102; death, 103.
 Henry VII., King (Earl of Richmond), 107, 108; reign, 111; death, 114; his chapel at Westminster, 66, 107, 114.
 Henry VIII., King, 113; reign, 115;

death, 121; attends to naval matters, 122; his will, 121, 122, 133, 140.
 Henry, son of Henry II., 50, 51.
 Henry Frederick, Prince of Wales (son of James I.), 141, 143.
 Henry VI., Emperor, 54.
 Herbert, Admiral (Earl of Torrington), 178, 185.
 Hereford, Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of, see Henry IV.
 Hereford, Humfrey Bohun, Earl of, 70.
 Hereford, Earl of (son of the above), 73.
 Hereward, 37.
 Honorius, Emperor, 5.
 Hotspur (Sir Henry Percy), 89.
 Howard, Charles, Lord, of Effingham, 137.
 Howard, John, 222.
 Howe, Admiral Earl, 214.
 Hubert de Burgh, 61.
 Hudson, Henry, discovers Hudson's Bay, 145.
 Hundred Years' War, beginning of the, 76; renewed by Henry V., 93; end of, 97.

I.

Ida, King of the Northumbrians, 6.
 Independents, 133, 154, 155.
 Indulgence, Declarations of, 176, 177.
 India, 14, 139, 203, 217, 220, 234, 239.
 Ine, King of the West-Saxons, 11, 14.
 Innocent III., Pope, 57—59.
 Ireland, 1; Danes in, 12; slave-trade with, 28; English conquest of, 52; Bruce in, 73; Simnel in, 111; Ireland raised to the rank of a kingdom, 122; Church of Ireland, 133; Tyrone's rebellion, 138, 139; plantation of Ulster, 144; rebellion of 1641, 152; Cromwell in, 159; united with the English Commonwealth, 163; settlement of, 169; Tyrconnel in, 176; Irishry and Englishry, 184; war in, 185; Irish forfeitures, 188; obtains an independent Parliament, 220; rebellion in, *ib.*; Union with Great Britain, *ib.*; Catholic Association, 231; Reform Bill passed for, 233; famine in, 237; recent legislation for, 241.
 Ireton, Henry, 156, 159, 167.
 Isabel of France, Queen (wife of Edward II.), 72, 74, 76.

J.

Jacobites, 184, 194, 197; conspiracy for the assassination of William III., 187; insurrection of 1715, 196; of 1745, 201.
 Jamaica, taken by the English, 163.
 James I., King of Scots, 94.
 James IV., King of Scots, 113, 115.
 James V., King of Scots, 120.
 James I. of England and VI. of Scotland, King, 134, 139; reign, 140; death, 143.
 James II., King (Duke of York), 157, 168, 170, 172, 173; reign, 174; abdication, 180; lands in Ireland, 185; at the Boyne, 186; death, 188.
 James Francis Edward Stuart (the Old Pretender), 177—179, 188, 194, 197.
 Jane Seymour, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 118.
 Jeffreys, Lord Chancellor, 175, 176, 179.
 Jenner, Dr. Edward, 222.
 Jersey, French attack upon, 212.
 Jews, 70, 164, 241.
 Joan of Arc, 96.
 John, King (son of Henry II.), 34, 52, 54, 55; reign, 56; death, 60.
 John the Good, King of France, 78.
 Jutes, 5, 11.
 Juxon, Bishop of London, 157.

K.

Kalendar, reform of the, 204.
 Katharine of Aragon, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 113, 116.
 Katharine of Braganza, Queen (wife of Charles II.), 169.
 Katharine of France, Queen (wife of Henry V.), 94, 95, 107.
 Katharine Howard, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 118.
 Katharine Parr, Queen (wife of Henry VIII.), 118, 123.
 Kent, people of, 2; kingdom of, 5.

L.

Labourers, Statutes of, 78, 98.
 La Hogue, battle of, 186, 188.
 Lambert, John, 165.
 Lancaster, Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of, see Henry IV.
 Lancaster, John of Gaunt, Duke of, 79, 80, 84, 87.

Lancaster, Thomas, Earl of, 72, 73.
 Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, 37, 39.
 Langton, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, 57—59.
 Latimer, Hugh, 123, 130.
 Laud, William, Archbishop of Canterbury, 150—152, 155.
 Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of, 135, 137, 138.
 Leicester, Simon of Montfort, Earl of, 63—65, 70.
 Lewes, battle, and mise of, 63.
 Limerick, surrender of, 186.
 Lincoln, John de la Pole, Earl of, 108, 111, 112.
 Literature, 28, 86, 109, 146, 181, 206, 223, 225, 242.
 Llywelyn of Wales, 61, 65, 67.
 Lollards, 81, 82, 91, 92, 109.
 London, or Londinium, burned by Boadicea, 3; its first bishop, 9; beats off the Danes, 20; after the battle of Hastings, 26; description of, 28; privileges of, 34; the Barons admitted into, 58; its liberties secured, 59; Londoners in the Barons' War, 63, 65; the insurgent peasants in, 82; Cade in, 98; corporation founds hospitals and schools, 126; in the Armada year, 137; the Plague in, 169; the Great Fire of, 170; after the flight of James, 179; Protestant riots in, 213; metropolitan police, 231; the Chartists in, 238.
 Londonderry, siege of, 185.
 Longchamp, William, Bishop of Ely, 54.
 Lords, House of, 8, 63, 156, 157, 162, 165, 168.
 Louis VII., King of France, 49—51.
 Louis, son of Philip Augustus (afterwards Louis VIII. of France), 60, 61.
 Louis XI., King of France, 103, 104.
 Louis XIV., King of France, 169—171, 178, 180, 183, 185, 187, 188, 192—194.
 Lucknow, relief of, 240.

M.

Magna Carta, or the Great Charter, 58, 65, 172.
 Malcolm, King of Scots, 17.
 Malcolm III., King of Scots, 40.
 Malplaquet, battle of, 193.

Mar, Earl of, 196.
 March, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of, 80.
 March, Edmund Mortimer, Earl of (grandson of the above), 88, 89, 92.
 Margaret of Anjou, Queen (wife of Henry VI.), 97, 99—103.
 Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., 113.
 Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of, 179, 191—194.
 Marlborough, Sarah, Duchess of, 179, 191, 194.
 Marston Moor, battle of, 154.
 Mary I., Queen (daughter of Henry VIII.), 116, 125, 126; reign, 127; death, 131.
 Mary II., Queen (wife of William III.), 177, 180, 184, 188.
 Mary, Queen of Scots, 121, 123, 133—135.
 Mary of Modena, Queen (wife of James II.), 177, 179.
 Mary Tudor, Queen of France and Duchess of Suffolk, 115, 121, 125, 140, 141.
 Matilda, the Empress, 44—48.
 Matilda of Boulogne, Queen (wife of Stephen), 48.
 Matilda (Edith), Queen (wife of Henry I.), 43, 44.
 Matilda of Flanders, Queen (wife of William I.), 35.
 Mercia, kingdom of, 6, 10; earldom of, 21.
 Methodists, 205.
 Monk, George, Duke of Albemarle, 160, 161, 163, 165, 169, 170.
 Monmouth, James, Duke of, 173—175, 182.
 Montague, Charles, 187.
 Moore, Sir John, 217.
 More, Sir Thomas, 117, 146.
 Mortimer, Sir Edmund, 89.
 Mortimer, Roger of, 74—76.
 Mortimer's Cross, battle of, 100.
 Mutiny Act, 189.

N.

Napier, Sir Charles, 239.
 Naseby, battle of, 155.
 National Debt, 187, 204, 219.
 Navarino, battle of, 230.
 Navarrete, battle of, 79.
 Nelson, Horatio, Lord, 214—216.
 Neville's Cross, battle of, 77.
 New Forest, the, 38, 41.

Newton Butler, battle of, 185.
 Newton, Isaac, 182, 187, 206.
 Nile, battle of the, 215.
 Nithsdale, Earl of, 197.
 Nonconformists, 133, 168.
 Nonjurors, 184.
 Norfolk, John Howard, Duke of, 108.
 Norfolk, Roger Bigod, Earl of, 70.
 Norfolk, Thomas Howard, Duke of, 118, 120.
 Norfolk, Thomas Mowbray, Duke of, 84.
 Normans, 15, 23, 27, 30; build castles and churches, 31.
 Northampton, battle of, 99.
 Northumberland, kingdom of, 6, 9; Danes in, 14; earldom of, 21.
 Northumberland, Henry Percy, 1st Earl of, 85, 89, 90.
 Northumberland, Henry Percy, 4th Earl of, 108.
 Northumberland, John Dudley, Duke of, 124—127.
 Northumberland, Thomas Percy, 7th Earl of, 134.
 North-west passage, search for the, 136, 145, 241.

O.

Oates, Titus, 172.
 O'Connell, Daniel, 231.
 Oda, Archbishop of Canterbury, 18.
 Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, 31, 36, 39.
 Offa, King of the Mercians, 11, 14.
 Ormond, Duke of, 194, 196.
 Ormond, James Butler, Marquess of, 159.
 Oswald, King of the Northumbrians, 10.
 Oudenarde, battle of, 193.
 Outram, Sir James, 240.
 Oxford, Provisions of, 62.
 Oxford, Robert Harley, Earl of, 194—196.

P.

Painting, 227.
 Papists, see Roman Catholics.
 Paris, Treaty of, 211.
 Parker, Matthew, Archbishop of Canterbury, 132, 145.
 Parliament, 7, 33; brought by Earl Simon and Edward I. into its present form, 63, 70; Roman Catholics shut out from, 135, 172, 230; money not to be levied without grant of, 189,

nor a standing army kept unless by its consent, 189; necessity of frequent parliaments, 189; oath of abjuration imposed on members, 190; one parliament for England and Scotland, 193, and for Ireland, 220; duration of parliaments, 198; Roman Catholics admitted to, 231; parliamentary reform, 232—234, 237, 241; Jews admitted to House of Commons, 241; Parliament deposes Edward II., 74; the Good Parliament, 79; Parliament of 1554 reconciled with Rome, 129; the Addled Parliament, 143; Parliament of 1628, 150; the Long Parliament, 152—161, 164—167; the Little Parliament, 162; Parliaments of the Protectorate, 162, 163; Convention Parliament of 1660, 165, 167; Parliament of 1661, 168; Parliament of 1685, 175, 176; Convention Parliament of 1689, 180; first Reformed Parliament, 234.

Paterson, 187.
 Patrick, St., converts the Irish, 12.
 Paulinus, Bishop, 9.
 Pedro or Peter the Cruel, King of Castile, 78.
 Peel, Sir Robert, 231, 233, 237.
 Pembroke, Richard Clare, Earl of (Strongbow), 52.
 Pembroke, William, Earl of, 61.
 Penda, King of the Mercians, 10.
 Peninsular War, 217.
 Percy, Sir Henry, called Hotspur, 89.
 Philip, King of Spain, 128—131, 135—137.
 Philip Augustus, King of France, 51, 53—57.
 Philip of Valois, King of France, 76.
 Philippa of Hainault, Queen (wife of Edward III.), 77, 79.
 Picts, 4, 5.
 Pilgrimage of Grace, 119.
 Pinkie, battle of, 123.
 Pitt, William, Earl of Chatham, 200, 203, 211, 212.
 Pitt, William, 213, 216, 230, 232.
 Plassy, battle of, 204.
 Poitiers, battle of, 78.
 Pole, Reginald, Cardinal, 119, 120, 131.
 Poor Laws reformed, 234.
 Popish Plot, 172, 206.
 Præmunire, Statute of, 85.
 Presbyterians, 154, 155, 165, 172.
 Press, censorship of, 189.

Preston, battle of, 156; Jacobites defeated at, 197.
 Pretender, the Old (James Francis Edward Stuart), 177—179, 188, 194, 197.
 Pretender, the Young (Charles Edward Stuart), 198, 201, 202.
 Printing, 108, 109.
 Protestants, 118; persecution of, 129; extreme Protestants called Puritans, 132; foreign Protestants succoured by Elizabeth, 133, 135; by Cromwell, 163; French Protestants, 183; Protestants in Ireland, 185; Protestant succession settled, 190; Protestant riots, 213.
 Punjaub annexed, 239.
 Puritans, 132, 133, 135, 141, 144, 151, 153, 154, 161, 164, 166, 181.
 Purveyance and pre-emption, prerogative of, 59, 167.
 Pym, John, 152.

Q.

Quakers, or Friends, 164, 223.
 Quebec, taking of, 203.

R.

Ralegh, Sir Walter, 136, 141—143, 147.
 Ralf Flambard, Bishop of Durham, 32, 40.
 Ramilies, battle of, 192.
 Reform Bill of 1832, 233; of 1867, 241.
 Renard, Simon, 128, 129.
 Revolution of 1688, 180.
 Richard I., King (son of Henry II.), 51; reign, 53; death, 55; legendary fame, *ib.*
 Richard II., King, reign, 81; deposition, 85; uncertain death, 88; burial, 88, 92.
 Richard III., King (Duke of Gloucester) 103—105; reign, 106; killed at Bosworth, 108.
 Richard, King of the Romans (Earl of Cornwall), 60, 63.
 Richmond, Henry Tudor, Earl of, see Henry VII.
 Ridley, Nicholas, Bishop of London, 126, 130.
 Right, Declaration of, 180, 189, 206.
 Right, Petition of, 150.
 Rights, Bill of, 189.

S.

Riot Act, 196.
 Rivers, Anthony Wydevile, Earl, 105, 109.
 Robert, Duke of Normandy (son of William I.), 38—41, 43.
 Roderick, King of Connaught, 52.
 Rodney, Admiral Sir George, 212.
 Rolf, Rollo, or Rou, Duke of the Normans, 15.
 Roman Catholics, 118, 132, 134, 137, 141, 142, 168, 172, 175, 186, 189, 232.
 Romans, 1—5.
 Romilly, Sir Samuel, 223.
 Roses, Wars of the, 99.
 Royal Marriage Act, 220.
 Royal Society founded, 182.
 Rupert, Prince, 153, 154, 170.
 Russell, Admiral, 178, 186.
 Russell, William, Lord, beheaded, 173.
 Rye-house Plot, 173.
 Ryswick, Peace of, 187, 188.
 Sacheverel, Dr., 193.
 Saint Albans, battles of, 99, 100.
 Saint Paul's, cathedral church of, founded, 9; rebuilding begun by Bishop Maurice, 31; cloister pulled down, 124; burned and rebuilt, 170, 183; Thornhill's paintings in, 227.
 Salisbury, Margaret, Countess of, 120.
 Sancroft, William, Archbishop of Canterbury, 177, 184.
 Sarsfield, Patrick, 186.
 Saxons, 5, 11.
 Scots, 1.
 Scutage, 52, 58, 65.
 Sebastopol, taking of, 239.
 Sedgemoor, battle of, 174.
 Septennial Act, 198.
 Seringapatam, storming of, 215.
 Settlement, Act of, 190.
 Seven Bishops, the, 177, 184, 209.
 Seven Years War, 202, 204.
 Severus, Emperor, 4.
 Seymour, Thomas, Lord, of Sudeley 123.
 Shaftesbury, Earl of (Lord Ashley), 171, 182, 206.
 Ship-money, 151, 152.
 Shovel, Sir Cloudesley, 193.
 Shrewsbury, battle of, 89.
 Shrewsbury, Earl and Duke of, 178, 195.
 Sidney, Algernon, beheaded, 173.

Sidney, Sir Philip, 136, 147.
 Sikh wars, 239.
 Simnel, Lambert, 112.
 Simon of Montfort, Earl of Leicester, 63—65, 70.
 Sind, conquest of, 238.
 Siward, Earl, 27.
 Six Articles, Act of the, 120, 123.
 Slavery, 7; dies out, 33; cannot exist in England, 223; Act for abolition of, 234.
 Slave-trade, 28; negro-slave trade, 136; abolished, 223, 234.
 Smith, Sir Sidney, 215.
 Somerset, Edmund Beaufort, Duke of, 99.
 Somerset, Edward Seymour, Duke of (Earl of Hertford), 121—125.
 Sophia, Princess, Electress of Hanover, 190, 194.
 South-sea Scheme, 197.
 Spanish Succession, 188; War of the, 192, 208.
 Spenser, Henry, Bishop of Norwich, 83.
 Spurs, battle of the, 115.
 Stamfordbridge, battle of, 25.
 Standard, battle of the, 47.
 Stanley, Lord, 108.
 Stanley, Sir William, beheaded, 112.
 Star Chamber, 151, 152.
 Stephen, King, 46—48.
 Stephenson, George and Robert, 235.
 Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of (Viscount Wentworth), 150, 152.
 Strathclyde, Welsh of, submit to Edward the Elder, 15; grant of, to Malcolm, 17.
 Strongbow (Earl of Pembroke), 52.
 Stuart, Arabella, 141.
 Suetonius Paulinus, 2.
 Suffolk, Henry Grey, Duke of, 125, 128.
 Suffolk, William de la Pole, Earl of, 97, 98.
 Supremacy, Act of, 132, 133.
 Suraj-ad-dowla, Nabob of Bengal, 204.
 Surrey, Henry Howard, Earl of, 121, 147.
 Surrey, John, Earl of Warrenne and, 69.
 Surrey, Thomas Howard, Earl of, 115.
 Swegen or Swend Forkbeard, King, 20.

T.

Talavera, battle of, 217.
 Talbot, Lord (Earl of Shrewsbury), 96, 97.

Tallages, 34, 62.
 Tasmania or Van Diemen's Land, 221.
 Templars, Knights, Order of the, suppressed, 75.
 Test Act, 168, 231.
 Tewkesbury, battle of, 103.
 Thomas, St., Archbishop of Canterbury, 40—51, 87, 119.
 Tippoo Sahib, 215, 220, 221.
 Toleration Act, 189.
 Toulouse, battle of, 218.
 Towton, battle of, 101.
 Trafalgar, battle of, 216.
 Treasons, Statute of, 80; Act for regulating trials in cases of treason, 190.
 Triennial Act, 198.
 Tromp, Martin, 160, 161.
 Troyes, Treaty of, 94.
 Tudor, Owen, 95, 107.
 Tyrconnel, O'Donnel, Earl of, 144.
 Tyrconnel, Richard Talbot, Earl of, 176, 185.
 Tyrone, O'Neill, Earl of, 138, 139, 144.

U.

Uniformity, Acts of, 126, 132, 168.
 Union with Scotland, 193; with Ireland, 220; Union Jack, 144, 193, 220.
 Utrecht, Peace of, 194.

V.

Victoria, Queen, 236.
 Villainage, 33, 81—83.
 Vimiera, battle of, 217.

W.

Wakefield, battle of, 100.
 Wales, 5; Flemish settlement in, 44; conquered and annexed by Edward I., 67; revolt under Glendower, 89; incorporated with England, 122; Royalist risings in, 156.
 Wales, Prince of, 65, 67.
 Wallace, William, 69.
 Walls built by the Romans in Britain, 3—5.
 Walpole, Robert, Earl of Orford, 198—200.
 Walsingham, Sir Francis, 132, 135.
 Waltheof, Earl, 27, 36, 37.
 Warbeck, Perkin, 112, 113.

- Warwick, Edward, Earl of, 111, 113.
 Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of, 100, 102, 103.
 Waterloo, battle of, 218.
 Wat Tyler, 82.
 Watt, James, 222.
 Wedgwood, Josiah, 222.
 Wedmore, Peace of, 14.
 Wellesley, Marquess, 217, 221.
 Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of, 217, 218, 231, 233, 238.
 Welsh, 1, 5, 7; submit to Egbert, 11; Welsh of Strathclyde submit to Edward the Elder, 15; overthrown at Brunanburh, 16; Welsh marches, 44; conquered by Edward I., 67; revolt under Glendower, 89.
 Wesley, John and Charles, 205.
 Wessex, kingdom of, 6, 11; earldom of, 21.
 Westminster, 24, 28, 68, 95, 102, 105, 183.
 Westminster Hall, 42, 157, 235.
 Westmoreland, Charles Neville, Earl of, 134.
 Whitefield, George, 205.
 Whittington, Richard, 95.
 Wilkes, John, 211, 224.
 William I., the Conqueror, King (William, Duke of Normandy), 24-26, 28, 31-33, 44, 50; reign, 35; death, 38.
 William II., King, 28, 38; reign, 39; death, 42.
 William III., King (Prince of Orange Nassau), 177-180, 183; reign, 184; death, 188.
 William IV., King (Duke of Clarence), 231; reign, 232; death, 234.
 William the Lion, King of Scots, 51.
 William, son of Henry I., 44.
 William of St. Carilef, Bishop of Durham, 32.
 Witenagemót, or Witan, 7, 8, 33.
 Wolfe, General, 203.
 Wolsey, Thomas, Cardinal, 116, 117.
 Worcester, battle of, 159.
 Wulfstan, St., Bishop of Worcester, 28.
 Wyatt, Sir Thomas, 128.
 Wycliffe, John, 81.
 Wykeham, William of, Bishop of Winchester, 80.

Y.

- York, Edmund of Langley, Duke of, 80, 84.
 York, Edward Plantagenet, Duke of, see Edward IV.
 York, James, Duke of, see James II.
 York, Richard Plantagenet, Duke of, 99, 100.
 York, Richard, Duke of (son of Edward IV.), 104-107, 112.
 York, Henry Benedict Stuart, Cardinal, 202.

THE END.

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